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AUTHOR Fisiak, Jacek
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ABSTRACT

This report presents a contrastive analysis of the phonological and grammatical systems of English and Polish. The analysis is intended as a resource in teaching Polish to speakers of English. Consequently, areas of special difficulty for the English-speaking learner are stressed: the phonology of segmental phonemes, the morphology of nouns, noun phrases, verbs, and verb phrases. An outline of basic Polish and English sentence patterns is given. Both grammar and phonology are discussed from a traditional-structural viewpoint, although the section on grammar requires some knowledge of terms belonging to the transformational generative theory. Chapter one deals with phonology (segmental and suprasegmental phonemes), and chapter two deals with morphology and syntax. The bibliography lists 69 items where specific learning problems are discussed at length. These items may be particularly useful in obtaining more theoretical elaboration or for preparing sets of exercises concerning specific Polish structures. (Author/AM)

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FINAL REPORT

Contract No. OEC-0-71-3762

Professor Jacek Fisiak
Center for Applied Linguistics
1611 North Kent Street
Arlington, Virginia 22209

Project for a Contrastive Analysis of the Sound Systems, Grammars and Lexicons of Polish and English. Phase I: Phonology and Grammar

August 1974

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FINAL REPORT

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PROJECT FOR A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOUND SYSTEMS, GRAMMARS AND LEXICONS OF POLISH AND ENGLISH.

Phase I: Phonology and Grammar

Professor Jacek Fisiak
Adam Mickiewicz University
Poznań, Poland

Center for Applied Linguistics
Arlington, Virginia

August 1974

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ABSTRACT

The grammatical and phonological systems of English and Polish are contrasted, and the most important similarities and differences in the areas of segmental phonemics, noun and verb morphology and a fragment of syntax are discussed. It is assumed that contrastive studies of this type are a necessary prerequisite of successful language teaching and preparation of teaching materials. The direction here is English to Polish, i.e. the addressee is thought to be an English learner of Polish /though some observations may prove helpful for Polish learners of English as well/.

Phonology is discussed from the viewpoint of the traditional-structural linguistic theory. The section lists a number of suggestions for the teacher of Polish /or an English learner of Polish/ which could facilitate the teaching /learning/ process as well as make certain predictions concerning error expectancy and difficulty grading.

The grammar section is a "translation" into traditional linguistics' terms of a number of investigations carried out within the TGG framework. It aims at showing the ways in which English analytic structures are rendered in a synthetic language. Areas are stressed where much language difficulty is to be expected on the part of the English learner. This section seems most useful for preparing teaching materials.

The Bibliography lists 69 items where particular problems are discussed at length. Articles and monographs listed there may be particularly useful when more theoretical elaboration is found necessary or for preparing sets of exercises concerning specific problems of the structure of Polish.

INTRODUCTION

Contrastive analysis is in a sense as old as language study itself, for it is hard to imagine any serious linguistic investigation independent of making close and scrutinizing comparisons of items related either intralinguistically or interlinguistically. Contrast had been found indispensable for typological and genetic purposes. In nineteenth century "comparative" linguistics, it lay at the basis of opposition -- the key notion of structuralism, and recently it has turned out to be a useful tool in our search for language universals. Yet, when we restrict the term "contrastive" to systematic comparison of elements in two /or more/ languages, which has often been done in practice, contrastive analysis becomes a bridge between theoretical linguistics and applied language study and a most effective shortcut in bringing the results of modern linguistic science to bear upon the teaching of foreign languages in particular.

In spite of the criticism questioning the validity of contrastive analysis in foreign language study /cf. Georgetown Monograph No. 21, 1968/, which to a large extent has been refuted in the meantime /cf. Marton, 1968; James, 1971; and items 1-7 in the Bibliography/, the utility of contrastive linguistics in foreign language teaching, in the preparation of teaching materials and error analysis seems unquestionable. It is both the theoretical discussions and practical results in the classroom that point out the basic mistakes of the critics, namely that whenever contrastive analysis fails, it is because of the limitations of our linguistic knowledge, and that contrastive linguistics forms only a small

section of all the methods, procedures and approaches responsible for effective teaching /and learning/ of foreign languages.

All this had to be taken into account when a proposal was drawn up in June 1971 to include in the Contrastive Structure Series /begun by the Center for Applied Linguistics under a contract with the Office of Education/ an investigation of some aspects of English and Polish structures.

The proposal was well motivated both theoretically and practically. On the one hand, the interest in learning English in Poland over the last several years has been notably growing. New departments of English were being opened at the Universities of Wrocław, Lublin, Katowice, and Gdańsk. The number of students at various language courses organized by social and cultural institutions /MPiK, Wiedza Powszechna, etc./ was considerably larger for English than any other language. The possibility was being discussed of starting to teach English to primary school pupils and to extend the number of hours taught to secondary school students. All this necessitates a large number of new, qualified teachers and teaching materials adapted to the needs of the learner with a Polish language background. Materials available were scarce and designed mainly for advanced students /Department of English level/. On the other hand, the last few years were marked by large ethnic interest moves in the U.S. and Canada. Students with an English language background wanted to study Polish in Poland or in the U.S. /e.g. exchange programs with Kansas, Fredonia, etc./. Teaching materials for those students had been practically nonexistent before June, 1971 /with the exception of some exercises prepared ad hoc and based on the teacher's intuition rather than on any principled basis/.

The situation, though highly inconvenient, is justifiable. The interest in English-Polish contrastive studies goes back to 1967 /cf. Papers and Studies in Contrastive Linguistics, Vol. I, for Bibliographical data/. The studies, unless theoretical, were expressly aimed at the Polish learner of English. Consequently, attention was paid to only certain aspects of the structures of the two languages, namely, those for which error expectancy was highest /articles, vocalic systems, system of tenses, word order, questions, etc./. Very few of the results arrived at in those studies were of direct use for the English student whose difficultyies usually concerned different areas of grammar /cases, synthetic morphology, consonantal systems, etc./.

The result of this project was to have been a contrastive statement of differences and similarities between English and Polish sound systems and a comparison of Polish synthetic morpho-syntactic structures with their English analytic counterparts. The project was to fill the gap, since the direction of contrast was clearly specific as English to Polish. Its results were to facilitate teaching Polish to students with an English language background and to aid in the preparation of teaching materials for those students.

In the course of investigation /both theoretical-descriptive carried out by native speakers of both languages AND practical classroom procedures/ it has been found that English learners of Polish may be expected to have most difficulties in the following areas:

a. segmental phonemes /diphthongs and consonants in particular/
b. synthetic nominals /systems of cases, genders and functions particular NPs have in syntactic structures/

c. systems of auxiliary verbs and verbal negation

d. "subjectless" sentences and sentences with adverbial complementation

Consequently, most attention was paid to the phonology of segmental phonemes, the morphology of NP's and VP's and the so called Basic Syntactic Patterns of the two languages. Other areas /suprasegmental phonemics, attributive structures and complex sentences/ are dealt with only marginally. There are two reasons for this. Often it has been found that the English learner finds certain constructions relatively easy. Such structures have been given only a cursory treatment. The other reason was much more important. Very often it has been found that certain areas of morphology and syntax necessitate detailed investigation of the structure of the lexica of the two languages. Since Phase I of the project was to have been restricted to phonology and grammar, and since lexical studies are very effort-and time-consuming, it has been found that within the time limit given no valid results may be obtained in this area. This does not mean that lexicon could be entirely discarded /cf. Chs. I and II/, but that more time and funding is necessary to complete lexical contrasts for English and Polish /accidentally, like some areas of phonology, lexical studies are bi-directional, i.e. there is little difference whether the direction is Polish-English or vice versa/.

Since the results of the investigation were to have pedagogical implications, certain decisions had to be made as to the theoretical frameworks adopted for the project. For phonology an articulatory-structuralist model was chosen. It has been found that generative

phonology could not be applied for our purpose since it is /a/ still in a state of theoretical flux, and /b/ too difficult to apply to pedagogical purposes. Again, this does not mean that scholars who would like to use certain results of this project for theoretical purposes will find no work presented within the generative framework. Items 23 and 46 of the Bibliography, which is an essential part of the report if detailed information concerning theoretical findings is sought, are written from the standpoint of generative phonology /and their findings have only been re-translated here/.

Grammatical contrasts were almost exclusively being made within one of the T-Grammar models /Lee's Grammar, Aspects Model, Case Grammar, Generative Semantics or Extended Standard Theory/. Although it has been found necessary to present some of the results in the present report in terms of mostly traditional grammar, it was impossible not to include some of the technical terms of TGG here. Usually definitions were provided whenever necessary; yet some knowledge of the models is expected on the part of the reader. The reader interested in theoretical arguments, specific assumptions made and formalized presentation of findings in the areas investigated under the auspices of this project is referred to individual items listed in the bibliography.

The exact plan of the work and the names of the analysts involved in the Project was presented in a report on work in progress and sent to the Center for Applied Linguistics in November, 1972. The output was a joint effort of all Institutes of English in Poland. Specific subjects were investigated in the following way:

Phonology: Lublin, Warsaw, Poznań

Noun morphology and syntax: Łódź, Poznań, Warsaw

Verb morphology and negation: Wrocław, Poznań

Attributive constructions, syntax of questions: Cracow, Warsaw

Other domains of syntax: Poznań, Łódź

Theory of contrast: Poznań, Łódź

The results of all this work described above is conflated, normalized, and summarized in Chapters I and II of the report. Experimental materials /exercises, teaching materials to teach Polish pronunciation to speakers of English and handbooks of practical Polish grammars for English speakers/ have been and are being prepared. Since none of them has appeared in print, they have been excluded from the bibliography and will be listed below. For about 12 months the materials have been tested in teaching Polish to English /both British and American/ students in Poznań. Investigators who prepared the materials are:

J. Arabski /Poznań, Katowice/ - Polish Pronunciation to American Students

S. Puppel /Poznań/, J. Fisiakowa /Poznań/, H. Krassowska /Poznań Gdańsk/ - Segmental and Suprasegmental Phonology for English Speakers

J. Schnert /Poznań/ - Grammatical Exercises and Dialogues

K. Rogalińska /Poznań/ - Grammatical Exercises

A. Pisarski /Poznań/ - Grammatical Exercises

M. Sharwood-Smith /Poznań/ - Written Polish /together with M. Grala, Z. Kościelak/

J. Mleczak /Poznań/ - Teaching Sentence Patterns to English Learners

Most of these have been based on the theoretical-descriptive analyses carried out under the auspices of the Project /listed in the Bibliography/.

Note:

1. Usually, in addition to foreign language teachers, contrastive analysis has been found useful to translators, interpreters and, sometimes, to mechanical translation specialists.

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Marton, W., 1968, Equivalence and congruence in transformational contrastive studies, Studia Anglica Posnaniensia, I, Vols. 1-2.

CHAPTER ONE

PHONOLOGY

1. English and Polish Segmental Phonemes

1.1 Vowels and Diphthongs

Polish has the following oral vowels: i, y, e, a, o, and u. It has two nasal vowel phonemes /ẽ/ and /õ/; orth.: <ę> and <ą>, respectively. The Polish system of oral vowels may be characterized as follows:

/i/ - front and close

/i/[1] - front and half-close

/e/ - front and half-open

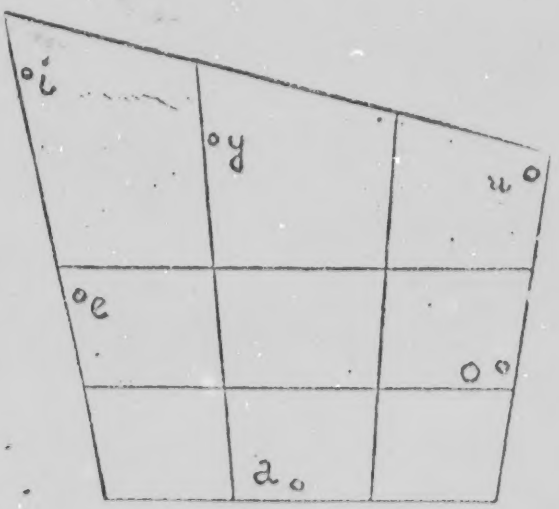
/a/ - central and open

/o/ - back and open

/u/ - back and close

When presented in a vowel chart the vowels are located as shown in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1.



1. Some scholars consider /i/ and /y/ to be allophonic variants of one phoneme, cf. Krzeszowski, 1968.

All of the six oral vowels occur in both stressed and unstressed syllables, e.g.:

/i/ - kilof, odpis

/y/ - czyn, żywotny

/e/ - teczka, nerwowy

/a/ - ład, przysmak

/o/ - głob, wykop

/u/ - guz, butelka

The vowels /i, e, a, o, and u/ may be found in initial, medial and final positions. All may be followed or/and preceded by other vowels, e.g.: bi-ol-og-ia, reagować, geologia, nauka, aerodynamiczny, naobiecywać, wyobrazić, zauważyć, wyuzdany, uogólniać.

/y/ - almost never found in the initial position /except for: ypsylon, "y, letter name"/ and in medial and final positions must be preceded by non-palatalized /"hard"/ consonants. Very seldom it is preceded by /k/ and /g/ phonemes. Kynologia, kynologiczny, gyneceum, and kydrynski seem to be the only exceptions. /y/ may co-occur with other vowels.

Consonants preceding /i/ are always palatalized: kij, piwo, tik, sinus, cicho.

The two facts taken together offer a partial explanation of the controversy referred to in note 1 /cf. preceding page/.

Main variants of the two nasal vowel phonemes may be defined as front half-open and back half-open, for /ẽ/ and /õ/ respectively.

From the point of view of their articulations, the two vowels are relatively difficult to define since the starting point for both of them are always dependent on the preceding consonant, and in the process

of their production there is usually a slight movement of the jaw and the body of the tongue towards the position assumed by the following consonant. For /õ/, the body of the tongue is most of the time in the back position and the lips are rounded; for /ẽ/, the body of the tongue is in front position and the lips remain unrounded.

/ẽ/ and /õ/ occur in stressed and unstressed syllables, e.g.:

/õ/ - gąska, brązowy

/ẽ/ - gęś, języczek

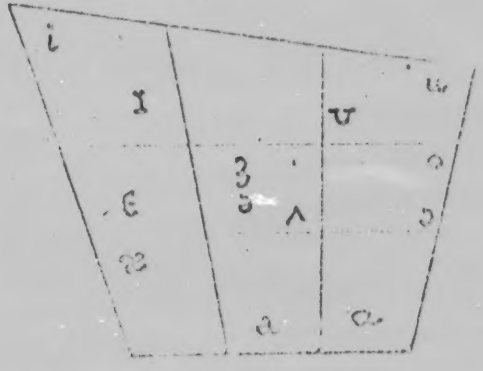
The vowels may be found in medial and final positions only: węch, kęs, sens, benzyna, kosę, rękę, idę, mąż, książka, pasowy, komfort, piszą, robią, panią, którą. Final /ẽ/ and /õ/ may often be denasalized /e.g., wziął, uciął, zgarną, sprzątną, się, widzę/, the former being much more susceptible of the process. The vowels are also often denalised in medial positions being replaced by the diphthongs: /ẽ/ :: /ew/, /õ/ :: /ow/ or: /ẽ/ :: /ey/, and monophthongized /ow/ = /o/. Depending on the context /o/ may appear as /on/, /oɲ/ or /om/, and likewise, /e/ - as: /en/, /eɲ/ or /em/.

An overall inventory of English vocalic phonemes combining British and America facts includes the following vowels:

/i/, /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ə/, /ɜ/, /a/, /ɑ/, /ɔ/, /o/, /ʊ/, /u/.

Their positions in the vowel chart are presented in Figure 2 below:

Figure 2.



Within Standard British and Standard American English the vowels may be slightly modified as to their degree of fronting, retracting, rising and lowering. To account for certain contrasts typical of some dialects, other phonemes may be postulated /e.g.: r-less vs. r-full dialects, diphthong variation, etc./. For instance, to account for the just :: gist -contrast, a centralized open /ɨ/ is often postulated; for the r-full dialects, /ɚ/ and /ɝ/ may be necessary to distinguish the initial vowel in along from the final vowel in mother (the difference between /ɝ/ and /ɜ/ is one of retroflection). Often /o/ is restricted to diphthongs only /e.g. home, obey/, /ɔ/ being postulated for the final vowel in both law, claw and door. Lastly, two other phonemes are needed for the dialects which distinguish between the initial front tense /æ/ and front low lax vowels as in the ant :: aunt - contrast, and for those that have /e/ as the first element of such diphthongs as: may, cake. The following five vowels are not taken into consideration here: /ɨ/, /e/, front, lax, open /a/, /ə/ and /ɝ/. Examples to illustrate the occurrence of each of the vowels presented in Figure 2 are:

/i/ - beat, eat, see

/I/ - bit, city, taxes

/ɛ/ - end, bet

/æ/ - cat, /AE/ bath

/ʌ/ - cut, upside, shut

/ə/ - along, enemy, /BE/ teacher, sofa

/ɜ/ - earn, kernel, fur

/a/ - /AE/: box, spa, Pa, arm, farm, calm

/ɑ/ - /BE/: arm, calm, Ma, bar

/ɔ/ - /BE/: box, shop; /AE/: all, bought

/o/ - /BE/: all, bought, door; /AE/: coat

/u/ - book, put, full

/u/ - move, mood, food

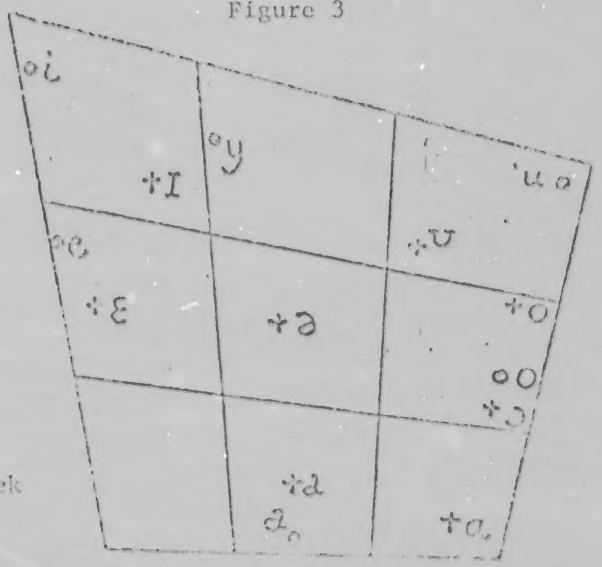
Looking at the two systems one can notice immediately that Polish lacks central phonemes /even if certain allophones of front or back phonemes can be considerably centralized, especially under weak stress/.

Besides, the Polish system lacks phonemes equivalent to English /æ/, /ɔ/, and /ɑ/. On the other hand, English has no nasal vowel phonemes equivalent to Polish /ẽ/ and /õ/.

The articulatory realization of the Polish phonemes differs markedly from English articulations with the exception of a variant of the Polish /y/-phoneme as in the word byk, approximating one of the variants of English /I/ as in the word big, and one variant of the Polish /e/ phoneme as in jest, approximating one of the variants of the English /ɛ/ phoneme as appearing in yes.

Otherwise the differences are rather obvious, cf. the positions of the main variants of English and Polish vowel phonemes on the following chart:

Figure 3



The following remarks might be made to the English learner of Polish with regard to the areas of divergences between the Polish and English vowels.

1. The Polish /i/ vowel should not be diphthongized. A diphthong which sometimes does occur in Polish is (a) restricted to only the initial position, and (b) is a rising diphthong /i.e., yi - and never a falling one as in English/, e.g. igła /yigwa/, ide /yide/. The mouth should not be open too much, in order to avoid any similarity to the front and close English /i/, as in beat, see. The learner should keep the lips spread until the next sound is pronounced.

2. The Polish /y/ should not be diphthongized as is often the case with the English front half-close /I/ as in lid, city. The learner should try to procude the vowel keeping the mouth open /lips less spread than in the case of Polish /i//in the same position until the following sound is produced.

3. For the production of the Polish /e/, the jaw should not be lowered too much, so as to avoid any similarity with the more open variants of the English /æ/, as in mad, /AE/ dance. It is more important, however, not to make the vowel too close in order to avoid similarity with the English front mid vowel /ɛ/, and especially with the close variants common in some dialects as in pen, set, Denis. /e/ is the lowest front vowel in Polish.

4. The main variants of the English /a/ are generally more retracted than the main variants of the Polish /a/. The body of the tongue

should not be moved back to make the pronounced vowel as dissimilar as possible from the BE /ɑ/ as in pass or AE calm.

5. The main variant of the Polish /o/ is the most retracted vowel in Polish. The main variant of the AE /o/ is higher than the Polish /o/, cf. coat :: kot. Though in the production of the Polish /o/ lips are rounded /which, among others, distinguishes it from the BE /ɔ/ as in got/, the rounding should not be made too strong in order to avoid any similarity with the English back and strongly rounded variant, as in port, caught.

6. The Polish /u/ vowel is lax, and it should not be diphthongized like the back, tense and regularly diphthongized English /u/ as in move. However, the mouth should not be open too much in order to avoid any similarity with /u/ as in book, good. The main variant of /u/ is considerably more fronted and lower than the main variant of the Polish /u/. Compare E. put and P. but. Lips are protruded and rounded in case of /u/ while they are spread for /u/.

1.1.2 Diphthongs.

The list of Polish diphthongs comprises two groups of glides. Group I includes all vocalic combinations that terminate in /y/, i.e. /ay/ - ajerkoniak, rajd, maj; /oy/ - ojciec, spokojny, kowboj; /ey/ - ejże, klej, sklejka; /iy/ - bijcie, tnij; /uy/ - ujście, pójdę, mój; and /yy/ - wyjdzie, wyjazd, and ryj. Group II comprises all diphthongs ending in /w/, i.e.: /iw/ - Iłż, piłka, bił; /ew/ - Ełk, pełny, pcheł; /yw/ - pyłek, pyłka, był; /aw/ - auto, pałka, pałac, grał; /ow/ - ołtarz, kołdra, wziął; /uw/ - ułuda, kółka, wół.

Thus, as can be seen, Polish falling diphthongs may be either fronting or backing. The centering type of diphthongs /common in English/ does not normally occur in Standard Polish since, as noted above, central vowels are nonexistent here.

Most frequent English diphthongs are: /ey/ - may; /ay/ - bite; /ɔy/ - boy; /oʊ/ - show, (with its variants: /ow/ - for AE, and /əw/ for BE); /aw/ - crowd; /ɪə/ - here; /ɛə/ - Mary; /aə/ - are; /ɔə/ - morning, poor; /uə/ - tour, poor; /uw/ - June, move; /iy/ - bee, free. The /ay/, /aw/ diphthongs have as their first element the front retracted open vowel (AE: aunt whenever distinguished from ant), which has been excluded from the chart /cf. Figure 2 above/.

The differences between the two systems could be presented to the English learner of Polish as follows:

1. The first element of the Polish /ay/ is almost identical with the front retracted open vowel of Standard English dialects. In final position, both languages seem to use /some dialects of English at least/ a more fronted variant of /a/. The Polish glide, however, differs considerably from its English counterpart as in buy (it approaches here the Polish /y/ rather than /j/). Thus, attention should be paid to make the glide stronger in order to approach the Polish semivowel /j/.
2. The first element of /oy/ is much less rounded than in English /ɔy/. Otherwise, /ɔ/ in the English diphthong is very close to the main variant of the Polish /o/. As in the case of /ay/, the glide is much stronger in Polish than in English /high front and not mid-retracted as in English/.
3. In the case of /ey/, the first element should be made considerably more open than during the pronunciation of English /ey/. The

glide is similarly much stronger so that there is a clearly audible difference between the two elements of the diphthong. Compare: English race and Polish rejs.

4. English /iy/ has a glide very similar to the "typical" Polish front /j/ - glide. The difference lies in the first component of the diphthong. In Polish the vowel is much closer and the whole diphthong relatively longer than its English equivalent /in colloquial speech the English /iy/ closely approximates the Polish high vowel /i//. Cf. English key, bee and Polish kij, bij.

5. English has no diphthong corresponding to the Polish /uy/. The first element of this complex corresponds to the English variant present in /uw/, e.g. moon, food. The vowels are rounded and back and the Polish /u/ is closer than its English equivalent. The glide is strong as in previous cases.

6. The first element of the Polish /yj/ is more open than that of the English /Ij/ as in beat, bee, and more centralized /also more open/ than in the English /ej/, as in may, hate. Glide differences are the same as in other cases.

7. It should be pointed out that the vowel in the Polish /uw/ is closer and more rounded than the back, close English /u/, as in food, moon. The glide is almost identical to the English /w/ as in wall, window, except for the fact that the main variant of the English /w/ is slightly more rounded than the Polish /w/ < ɫ > / a more rounded variant is possible in certain dialects of Polish/.

8. The Polish /ow/ differs from the English /ow/ (/w/) with respect to both elements. For AE the difference lies mainly

in the fact that the Polish /l/ is more open /lower/ than the AE vowel. The BE initial element is more centralized /or even fronted, cf. cold :: kołdra/ while the Polish /o/ is a typical back vowel. Unlike English, the glide in the Polish /ow/ is rounded and the lips are close to each other.

9. The Polish /a/ in /aw/ is more retracted /i.e., it is central/ than the English front /a/ of cow, about, house. The glide in the Polish /aw/ is considerably more rounded and closer than the English /w/ in the /aw/ diphthong. Cf. stout :: stał, bow_N :: bał, power :: pałe.

1.2 Consonants

In Polish the following classes of consonantal phonemes may be distinguished according to their manner of articulation:

a. Plosives: /p,p′, b,b′, t,d,k,k′, g,g′/. e.g.: pasek, piasek, bały, biały, torba, duch, koks, kiosk, gont, giał.

b. Affricates: /c, ʒ, č, j, ć, ʒ́/. e.g.: cwany, dzwony, czemu, dżemu, ciura, dziura.

c. Fricatives: /f, f′, v, v′, x/. e.g.: fakt, Fiat, wara, wiara, pchać, chata, huta.

d. Sibilants: /s, z, š, ž, ś, ź/. e.g.: sad, siadł, zaraz, ziarno, szaro, żarna.

e. Nasals: /m, m′, n, n′/. e.g.: mały, miały, nos, niesie.

f. Laterals: /l/ e.g.: lalka, bal.

g. Trills: /r/ e.g.: rok, stary, wór.

h. Semivowels: /j, w/. e.g.: jary, gaje, maj. łata, pała, miał.

Including the place of articulation, one may represent Polish consonantal phonemes as in Figure 4 below:

Figure 4	Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Apico-Dental	Apico-Alveolar	Fronto-Palatal	Dorso-Velar
Plosives	p, p', b, b'		t, d,			k, k', g, g'
Affricates			c, ʒ,	č, ǰ	ć, ʒ',	
Fricatives		f, f', v, v'				x
Sibilants			s, z,	š, ž,	ś, ź,	
Nasals	m, m'			n	ń	
Laterals				l		
Trills			r			

For some speakers of Standard Polish two other phonemes might be postulated, i.e. the apico-dental lateral /ɫ/ - in free variation with the semivowel /w/, and a voiced dorso-velar fricative /ɣ/ - in complementary distribution with /x/, as in: humor, Bohdan.

The 21 English consonantal phonemes are shown in Figure 5:

Figure 5	Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Apico-Dental	Apico-Alveol.	Fronto-Palatal	Dorso Velar	Gl-?
Plosives	p b			t d		k g	
Affricates				č ǰ			
Fricatives		f v	θ ð				
Sibilants				s z	š ž		
Nasals	m			n		ŋ	
Laterals				l			
Aspirates							h

In addition there are three semivowels /w,j,r/.

Looking at the two charts one can see that certain Polish phonemes have no equivalents in English and vice versa. Thus, in English there are /θ,ð,ɔ/, and the aspirate /h/ whose equivalents do not occur in Polish, whereas in Polish there are the "soft stops, nasals and fricatives /those with the diacritical mark, as well as the affricates /c, ʒ , ć, ʒ'/ appearing in such words as cyna, nędza /neɲʒa/, cicho /ćixo/, dziura /ʒ'iura/; and fronto-palatal sibilants /ś, ź/ as in siano /śano /, ziarno /źarno. In addition Polish has the dorso-velar fricative /x/ which does not occur in English.

Moreover, those English phonemes that do have Polish equivalents are usually realized by markedly different phones. Thus, the main variants of the English /t,d,s,z/ are apico-alveolar while the main variants of the Polish /t,d,s,z/ are apico-dental. Apico-alveolar variants of Polish /t,d/ are restricted to contexts where they are immediately followed by apico-alveolar /š, ž/, e.g.: trzaskać, wietrzyć, drzazga, wedrzeć. The English sibilants /š, ž/ are fronto-palatal while the Polish /š,ž/ are apico-alveolar.

One may also note certain allophonic differences, not indicated in Figures 4 and 5:

1. While English shows normally three degrees of voicing for its stops and fricatives /i.e., fully voiced - in intervocalic position or/and in voiced contexts, voiceless and partially devoiced in word initial and final positions/, Polish has only voiced and voiceless consonants. Voiced ones appear neither in word final position nor before voiceless consonants; thus, there is: chleba

/xleba/, but chleb /xlep/; ława /wava/, but ławka /wafka/.

2. The nasal release of plosives occurs in Polish only when a homorganic nasal follows as in trudno /apico-dental stop, followed by apico-alveolar nasal/ or łapmy /bilabial stop, followed by bilabial nasal/. In English nasal release of plosives occurs whenever a nasal follows.

3. The English /s,z/ and the Polish /ś,ź/ are described as apico-alveolar sibilants. The differences in articulation, accounting for the clearly marked differences in auditory effects, are as follows: the main variants of the Polish /s, z/ are, in fact, post-dental and of /ś,ź/ post-alveolar. The main variants of the English /s,z/ are alveolar; hence the auditory effects of their articulation create an impression of a compromise between the Polish /s,z/ and /ś,ź/. The Polish /s,z/ are articulated with the blade of the tongue placed very close to the inner side of the upper front teeth which produces a very strong "hissing" effect. The effect is absent in the case of the English /s,z/, produced with a more retracted tongue position. The English /ś,ź) represent sounds intermediate between the Polish post-alveolar /ś,ź/ and the palatal /ś,ź/. Polish /ś,ź/ are articulated further back/are more palatalized/ than their English equivalents.

4. There are six affricates in Polish against two in English. Again the English /č,ǰ/ are intermediate between the Polish alveolar /č,ǰ/ and palatal /ć,ǵ/. Roughly, the apico-alveolar Polish /č,ǰ/ are less, and the fronto-palatal Polish /ć,ǵ/ are more palatalized than the English pair. Also the degree of lip-rounding is weaker

for the Polish /ć,ʒ́/ than for the English /č,ǰ/. Cf. cipa :: cheaper, dziury :: jury. The articulation of the Polish /c, ʒ/ starts with a stop, the contact between the articulating organs taking place at the point similar to that for the articulation of the Polish /t,d/, although the area of contact is larger than in the case of /t,d/. Next the closure is gradually released /actually the process of fissure formation starts almost at the moment of closure formation, the contact lasting approximately 0.2-0.3 seconds/. The fact that the release is gradual may account for Polish minimal pairs of the form: affricate :: stop+sibilant, cf. tse /name of a fly/ :: ce /C, name of the letter/.

5. The main variant of the Polish /n/ is apico-postdental rather than alveolar; in English the main variant is alveolar. The alveolar variant of the Polish /n/ appears after vowels in non-final positions in such words as mądry /mõndry/, bandyta /bãndyta/ and in front of sibilants as in kunszt /kũnšt/, gęsty /gẽnsty/. (Phonemically nasal vowels are interpreted as two phoneme clusters: V+nasal, in all non-final positions.)

6. The dorso-velar [ŋ] appears in Polish as an allophone of /n/. It may be found only in front of [k] and [g] in such words as bank, tank, gangster. In Central Polish the occurrence of [ŋ] is not universal, in contrast with Southern Polish of the Kraków, Łódź or Poznań region, where /n/ is more frequently realized as [ŋ] in front of [k,g,ḳ,g̣].

7. The English dorso-velar allophone of /l/ - "dark-l" differs from Polish /ł/ (in those dialects where the /l/ :: /w/ contrast is preserved) in that it is alveolar in addition to being velar, while

the Polish /ł/ is dental with velar co-articulation. Their phonemic status is also different. Also, the English "clear-l" may often be dentalized while the Polish /l/ is always alveolar.

8. The Polish trill should not be identified with the English semivowel /r/. In the articulation of the English /r/ the tip of the tongue is raised towards the central part of the hard palate and remains stiff. In the articulation of the Polish /r/-sound, the apex vibrates in the upper region of the alveolar ridge.

9. Generally, in the pronunciation of the Polish "hard" plosives /p,t,k/ the degree of plosion is roughly similar to that of the English voiced stops and never /in the case of emotionally neutral pronunciation/ as strong as in aspirated variants of the English /p,t,k/. Aspiration does not normally occur in Polish.

10. Unreleased plosives in Polish occur only when one is followed by a homorganic stop, as in: poddać /the first [d] is unreleased/, władczy, nad czym /the apico-dental [d] is unreleased before the apico-alveolar [č]/. In English, plosives are unreleased before all other plosives.

2. Some Remarks on Stress and Intonation in English and Polish

2.1 Stress

Usually stress in Polish is classified as dynamic. Stressed syllables are pronounced more distinctly, and accented vowels are usually longer than vowels in unaccented syllables. The pitch of the accented syllable is typically slightly higher than that of unaccented syllables.

The Polish stress pattern may be regarded as fixed in the sense that in most cases the primary stress falls on the penultimate syllable of the word, e.g., ława /wáva/, pióro /p´iúro/, podwieczorek /podv´ečórek/, lokomotywa /lokomótýva/, wartościowy /vartośćóvy/.

Exceptions to the rule form:

a. verbs ending in clictic particles: -bym, -byś, -byśmy, etc; -sie, cie, -no, etc., e.g. napisałbym /nap´ísawbym/, przeczytaliby /pšečytál´iby/, posuń się/, posuńśel/, etc.

b. certain words of foreign origin: Ameryka, retoryka, uniwersyte, technika, pedagogika, etc.

Words of the two types are usually stressed on the antepenultimate syllable. In colloquial speech, however, one often finds penultimate stress especially in words of type (b).

c. proclitic forms /usually prepositions/ are not stressed when followed by a fully stressed word. In the combination: proclitic, cf. do domu, koło szkoły, but: do mnie.

d. longer words usually have two stresses, the primary stress falling on the penultimate syllable, the secondary being placed on the first syllable of the word, e.g.: niebezpieczeństwo, przyjacielski.

In some compound words, the stress usually falls on the penultimate syllable /primary stress/ and on the syllable of the first element of the compound which /syllable/ would receive the stress if the element stood in isolation, c.f.: daleko :: dalekowzroczny, szybko :: szybkobiegacz, jedno :: jednorożec.

Unlike English, in colloquial speech /non-rapid/ there are seldom more than two or three unaccented syllable /usually there is one/ between

the accented ones.

English and Polish differ also with respect to their stress mobility. That is, stress in Polish is morphologically independent /cf. okno but oknami and English: begin :: beginning/, and different syllables are usually accented here within the word paradigm.

Thus, if one assumes that the stress pattern for English is free /i.e. unpredictable for most cases/ and immobile /i.e. it does not change within the word paradigm/, but fixed and mobile in Polish, one is justified in predicting that the English learner of Polish will have less trouble in this area of phonology than the Polish student of English.

NOTE:

1. No attention was paid to either (a) emphatic stress /in phrases, clauses and sentences/, or (b) topicalization effects /only "neutral word order" was assumed for Polish/. Sentence intonation (c) influence upon accentual patterns of the two languages was similarly disregarded.

2. It has been observed recently /cf. Wierzchowska, 1971/ that the Polish stress pattern is in the process of rapid change. The change is noticeable in all dialects and all age groups of speakers. Its direction may be summarized in the following way:

a. in polysyllabic words /from three syllables up/ the primary stress tends to fall in most cases on the first syllable of the word; the penultimate syllable regularly shows a secondary stress which, in addition to its strength, differs from the

primary stress in its capability of lengthening the syllable on which it falls, e.g. ekspresja /three syllables/, ogólniejszy, hydrometeorologiczny. Often, the two first syllables receive the primary stress /usually when the first syllable is very short or forms a morphological unit -- usually a prefix/. In this case a juncture occurs between the first and second accented syllables. Also in these cases the penultimate syllable carries a secondary stress, e.f.: u//osobienie, a//erodynamiczny, je//zykoznawstwo, nie//dopuszczany. The juncture may be present in forms carrying two stresses. In such cases it is placed after the second syllable: uni//wersytety, wyma/wianiowy, indy//widualny, wyja/tkowo. Since the changing pattern has not been exhaustively investigated and the literature on the subject is scarce, it has been mentioned here only marginally.

2.2 Intonation

Polish and English declarative sentences are characterized by a regular fall on the last prominent word of the sentence. In Polish the tune itself is usually a low fall /in English a high fall/. The average Pole's pitch of voice does not go as high as that of an Englishman. In both languages intonation in declarative sentences consists basically of a series of slowly descending level tunes.

In general, the final contour of Polish questions is a rise except for questions in which the speaker wants to express a reproach, where the rise is rather low. In English, questions involve either a final rise or fall depending on the type of sentence involved.

Typically, requests and commands in both Polish and English involve a final fall.

High rise and level rise are typical for statements which need some elaboration, comment or some other complement in Polish. In English such intonation is very seldom used for emotionally neutral sentences /usually high rise seems to point to the excitement or irritation of the speaker: He proposes to marry that hag?, You mean you haven't read it? and level rise to a shade of sympathy You've never heard him sing?/.

The intonation patterns of the two languages differ most when they depend on the emotional attitude of the speaker and the extended scope of contextual reference. A contrastive statement of regularities of this type needs much more work than has been done so far.

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CHAPTER TWO

MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

1. Nouns and Noun Phrases

1.0 The analysis and comparison of nouns and noun phrases, their morphological structure, and syntactic relationships reveal many fundamental differences between the grammatical structure of the two languages. Consequently, much learning difficulty is to be expected in this area for the English learner of Polish. The difficulties encountered and the resulting mistakes may be of two kinds:

a. those that result from the irregularities and complexities in the way the structural devices available within the target language /Polish/ are put to use;

b. those that stem from the irregularity or lack of correspondence between the two languages, i.e. when the native language pattern is being incorrectly imposed on the target language expression.

The first group of difficulties concerns /among others/ the system of stem alternations where both vowels and consonants of a word stem alternate in accordance with some established patterns, depending on the type of affix added. Another example will be the existence of various endings for the same case within the same declension type, the variation being often entirely unpredictable. This is the case with masculine nouns /in Polish/, some of which like brat "brother", młot "hammer" have the genetive singular ending -a; others like kraj "country", poniedziałek "Monday" having -u. The mistakes made in connection with

the above noted grammatical phenomena will be classified mainly as instances of false analogy or overgeneralization within the target language.

The present section will aim at pointing out the sources of difficulties of the second type, i.e. those that result in interference errors. As an example, one may cite the erroneous use of the preposition z to indicate that the noun that follows is used to name the instrument of an action referred to by the verb. This mistake can be traced to the fact that z corresponds in many cases /e.g. when used in phrases expressing accompaniment/ to the English with, which in turn occurs in instrumental prepositional phrases. In Polish, however, the instrumental function of the noun phrase is expressed not with the preposition, but with the instrumental case ending.

1.1 Category of number

In both languages singular and plural forms of nouns exist, the difference being reflected in the morphological shape of the noun itself and the form of the verb with which the noun in question agrees. The differences concern the following:

a. The number of plural endings in Polish may considerably vary in shape depending on the case, the assignment of the noun to the particular declension, and also on the particular noun. It is enough to say that the nominative plural of masculine nouns of the third declension only has four endings: -y/-i, -e, -owie.

b. Number distinction is shown in English as far as verbal agreement is concerned only in the case of the third person simple present

tense, whereas in Polish it is revealed in all tense forms and persons. Similarly, adjectives which stand in agreement with nouns they modify may also take singular and plural forms.

c. Unlike English, plural forms in Polish are not distinguished from singular ones by the alternation of stem vowels alone, as in foot/feet. Instead, suppletion is often made use of, e.g., the noun człowiek "man, human being" has the suppletive plural ludzie.

Both languages are alike in having three basic groups of nouns: those showing singular/plural variation, those that are only singular, and those that have only plural forms /pluralia tantum/. It often happens, however, that lexical equivalents are assigned to different groups, e.g.:

English	Polish
Sing.	Sing./Plur.
furniture	mebel/meble
information	informacja/informacje
gossip	plotka/plotki
money	pieniądz/pieniądze
Plur.	Sing.
clothes	odzież/ubranie: Sg/Pl/
Sing.	Plur.
violin	skrzypce
mouth	usta
door	drzwi

The possibility of a mistaken assignment of a Polish noun to the wrong category seems apparent.

There are some cases where, unlike English, subject nouns in plural collocate with the singular form of the main verb.

This happens when what appears to be a subject of the sentence is a noun in the genitive. - /Some linguists would insist that we have to do here with the impersonal form of the verb and a direct object noun phrase instead of a regular subject-verb phrase construction/ The subject noun takes this case form when it is modified by some quantifying expression like wielu "many", niewielu "few", kilku "some", parę/paru "several", and numerals, e.g., pięciu "five", dwóch "two", as well as obligatorily when preceded by the so-called collective numerals like dwoje, "two", troje "three" etc., e.g.:

wielu chłopców czyta gazety
pięciu chłopców czyta gazety

many/five boys read newspapers

piecioro dzieci siedzi na ławce

five children sit on the bench

Among other peculiar features of collective numerals in Polish is their ability to modify /and precede immediately/ nouns belonging to the pluralia tantum group:

siedmioro nożyc	seven pairs of scissors
dwoje ust	/equiv. a pair of lips/mouths/

Unlike English, collective nouns in Polish never collocate as subjects with plural forms of verbs:

The { government / committee / class } go to work.

{ Rząd / Komitet / Klasa } idzie do pracy.

The exception to this rule is the noun państwo /Mr. and Mrs./ which being a singular neuter noun collocates with plural verbs and collective numerals:

Panstwo wyszli.	equiv. Mr. and Mrs. X have left.
Czworo panstwa wyszło.	equiv. Mr. and Mrs. X,Y,Z,W have left.

1.2 Category of gender

The difference between the two languages is a fundamental one here. Polish has a grammatical gender, and almost every noun by virtue of its morphological features belongs to the masculine, feminine, or neuter group. The three gender forms are also shared by the word classes which in sentences stand in agreement relation with nouns, i.e. adjectives, verbs, demonstrative pronouns, and numerals. Gender is marked morphologically, words of different gender groups taking different inflectional endings.

In English gender is "natural" or logical, words being typically divided into groups on the basis of the sex of the entities to which they refer. Most inanimate nouns are neuter with the exception of some words where one may assume personification of some sort /ship, aeroplane, motor-car -- feminine/ or some foreign, usually Latin, influence /the moon-feminine, the sun-masculine, England, Poland, Russia - feminine/. Moreover, gender distinction in English nouns is not marked morphologically,and it does not have any effect on the form of associate verb or attributive modifiers. The distinction is usually shown only in the variation of forms in third person anaphoric pronouns and sometimes relative pronouns.

Natural gender in Polish is limited to words denoting human beings where it is marked by derivational and inflectional affixes, e.g.:

Masculine	Feminine
pan	pani
gospodarz	gospodyni
uczeń	uczennica
Stanisław	Stanisława
Kowalski	Kowalska

In this respect Polish is easier to learn than, for instance, German, which has to a large extent arbitrary gender assignment for this class of nouns. Exceptions to the rule are constituted by:

a. words denoting young humans /also animals/ which are neuter /as they may be in English/: dziecko "child, niemowle "baby", malenstwo "little one", szczenie "puppy", prosie "piglet", kurcze "chicken";

b. diminutive and augemtative forms -- also neuter: chłopie "lad", dziewcze "girl", babsko "hag", konisko "jade", psisko "dog", dziadzisko "lout";

c. some morphologically feminine nouns referring to men: artysta "artist", niedołęga "oaf", golibroda "barber", mężczyzna "man", fajtłapa "stick-in-the-mud". All of them decline like feminine nouns. If preceded by an adjective, however, they force the masculine ending upon the modifier. Verbs which stand in agreement with such nouns also take masculine endings in the past tense;

d. Some masculine nouns referring to women: doktor "doctor", gość "guest", inżynier "engineer", docent, motorniczy, "tram driver". All of them collocate in the predicate position /be + NP/ with both feminine and masculine subjects. Those that refer to profession or social position may appear in subject position co-occurring with the feminine form of the

verb. Some of them possess a separate feminine form used alternatively in the case of a feminine referent: profesor :: profesorka, asystent :: asystentka, lekarz :: lekarka "physician", malarz :: malarka "painter", student :: studentka.

As to non-human animate nouns, some of them have two often-suppletive forms reflecting sex difference. The number of animal kinds which are referred to by the pairs of sex-distinguishing words is greater in Polish than in English, e.g.:

wilk-wilczyca	wolf
kozioł-koza	goat
kot-kotka-kocica	cat
łoś-klempa	elk
niedzwiedz-niedzwiedzica	bear
jeleń-łania	deer
lew-lwica	lion-lioness
tygrys-tygrysica	tiger-tigress
kanarek-kanarzyca	canary
gąsior-gęś	gender-goose
kaczor-kaczka	drake-duck

If the sex of an animal is indeterminable or the noun is used, the generically masculine form is used with some stems and the feminine with others in a rather unpredictable way, which may cause some learning difficulty.

generic masculine : wilk, kot, lew, gołąb

generic feminine : gęś, kaczka, kura

Nouns which refer to some other, especially lower, species of animals do not have two forms, and the gender is unpredictable, i.e. grammatical, e.g.:

masculine - dzik "boar", łasoś "salmon", ptak "bird", kruk "raven", mors "walrus", waż "snake"

feminine - mewa "seagull", płotka "roach", żaba "frog", ćma "moth", żmija "viper"

Inanimate nouns are usually assigned to three genders arbitrarily, i.e. their gender is grammatical.

As has been mentioned before, nouns of different genders follow different declension patterns. It appears that with respect to the declension patterns into which they fit, masculine nouns can be further subdivided into three subgroups:

a. those that refer to human beings - virile

b. animal

c. inanimate

Virile nouns have the same endings for genitive and accusative in both plural and singular. Nouns denoting animals have the same ending for accusative and genitive in the singular, whereas inanimate nouns, like feminine and neuter nouns, have different case forms for those two cases in both numbers:

	Sg.	Pl.
masculine virile	acc=gen	acc=gen
masculine animal	acc=gen	acc≠gen
masculine inanimate, feminine, neuter	acc≠gen	acc≠gen

Adjectives collocating with nouns decline in the same fashion showing virile-animal-inanimate distinctions.

An exception to the rule is the class of semantically virile nouns /kolega, mężczyzna, atleta, artysta/, which decline like feminine nouns of the first declension with the exception of the plural, where they have identical endings for genitive and accusative. Interestingly, if they are modified by an adjective, the adjective declines like a

regular virile noun of the third declension with all accusatives equal to genitives, e.g.:

genitive - dobrego kolegi, dobrych kolegów "good friend/friends"

accusative - dobrego kolegę, dobrych kolegów

Virile/non-virile distinction is also relevant for the selection of proper verbal forms. In past tense, plural virile nouns select the -li ending, non-virile -ły.

1.3 Noun Functions

In both languages noun phrases can function as subjects of sentences, direct and indirect objects, or as adverbials. In all those functions, except for the main clause, subject noun phrases may be preceded by prepositions forming prepositional phrases. When direct object NP is preceded by a preposition, it will be referred to as prepositional object and treated separately from direct object NPs here. In neither language is there a one-to-one correspondence between the syntactic and semantic function of the noun phrase. One of the reasons for this is the existence of transformational processes which change the function assignment of noun phrases in a sentence. For example, the passive rule changes what would be the subject of the active sentence with a transitive verb into its direct object. Besides, even in a simple active sentence there is no constant semantic value that can be attributed to its subject and which can be described in such terms as "agent", "experiencer", or "patient". In order to determine which of those functions is being performed by a given NP, we need to know what types of verbs are involved. A more systematic relationship between surface form and semantic function exists in the case of prepositional

phrases, although here, too, surface similarities may be misleading.

The most important difference between the two languages in the area of noun phrase functions is the way the relation in question is formally expressed. In English the primary exponent is the word order position of a noun phrase. In Polish it is the case of the head noun that defines the relation /except when case forms are determined by associated prepositions/.

In addition to this general difference, which is perhaps the most fundamental structural difference existing between the two languages, there are more specific ones which may essentially contribute to learning difficulties. First of all, it often happens that in the translational equivalent of an English sentence the corresponding noun phrase in Polish has a different function and hence a different case from that which could have been possibly predicted. For example, the subject of the English verb "to lack" becomes an object in the dative case in Polish:

John lacked money.

Jankowi brakowało pieniędzy.

Secondly, the assignment of cases and prepositions to mark particular syntactic and semantic functions of noun phrases is a process full of irregularities and exceptions conditioned by the type of verb, noun, and other factors. These complexities in the use of formal devices available within the two languages are often specific for the language in which they occur, causing learning difficulties and possibilities of transfer errors. For example, while NPs, functioning as objective complements occur without a preposition in English, in Polish some of them may take a preceding preposition; others may not,

e.g. :

Uczyniliśmy Janka prezesem.

na prezesa

We made John chairman.

Wybralismy Janka na prezesa.

prezesem

We have chosen John as the chairman.

1.3.1 Subject

In English the subject NP in an active declarative sentence precedes the main verb of the sentence and is distinguished from object NPs by this word order position. It is also the only NP in the sentence that may have an influence on the shape of the verb standing in agreement with it. In Polish the NP which agrees with the verb is the one whose head noun shows the nominative case ending. Furthermore, nouns in the nominative do not need to precede the main verb.

Chłopiec czyta książkę.

Książkę czyta chłopiec.

The boy reads the book.

It does seem, however, that word order in Polish is not entirely free. The second of the two sentences above /object-verb-subject/ seems to be appropriate as an answer to the question: Kto czyta książkę? "Who reads the book?" and corresponds to the English sentence with its subject contrastively stressed: THE BOY reads the book. In a situation where a neutral reportive statement /not an answer to some specific question

in which the knowledge of some aspects of the situation described in a sentence is presupposed/ is being sought, the first of the two sentences seems to be preferable. Such a sentence is proper in response to the question, "What do you see in this picture?"

As mentioned before, there are cases where the closest noun phrase corresponding to what is a subject NP in English appears in some other function, with the case ending different from the nominative in Polish. Sentences where the main verb denoted some state or condition independent of the will of the person affected by it, and where the noun phrase which refers to the affected person functions as the subject of such verb in active English sentences, are often rendered in Polish as subjectless constructions. The NP that corresponds to the subject NP of the English sentence has its head noun in the dative or the indirect object case, e.g.:

I am comfortable.	Wygodnie /jest/ mi.
They are sleepy.	Chce im się spać.
She feels cold/warm.	Zimno /gorąco/ jest/ jej.
He is bored.	Nudzi mu się.
We don't like it.	Nie chce nam się.

Similar correspondences exist between English sentences with two NPs plus a verb belonging to the class which could be semantically characterized in the same way as the predicates mentioned above. The subject in English becomes the indirect object marked by the dative, and the English direct object receives a genitive case ending. Some grammarians /Klemensiewicz, 1962/ classify the noun in the genitive as the subject

of the sentence, e.g.:

I like her.	a. /Ja/ lubię ją.
	b. Ona mi się podoba.
You need help.	a. /Ty/ potrzebujesz pomocy.
	b. Potrzeba ci pomocy.
We lack money.	a. Brakuje nam pieniędzy.
	b. -
He is getting more children.	a. Przybywa mu dzieci.
	b. -

As can be seen from the above examples, with some verbs direct translation preserving the functional structure of an English sentence is possible /potrzebować, lubić/. In other cases, /przybywać, brakować, ubywać, wystarczać/ constructions have to be used that are non-existent in English, and so English learners may find them difficult to master.

What appears to be a genuine case of a noun phrase with a noun in a case different from nominative, but still functioning as a sentence subject, can be observed when subject nouns are preceded by quantifying expressions. In such a case the noun receives a genitive ending /the numeral has to be a non-collective one, i.e., more than 2-4/. Although the subject-verb agreement is blocked in such cases, the genetive noun phrase may still be affected by transformations which typically apply to subjects/for example: Equi-NP deletion/.

Wielu chłopców chce wstąpić do wojska.

/Many boys want to join the army/.

Siedmiu ludzi cieszy się że dostali premie.

/Seven of them are glad to have got the bonus/.

Interestingly, when the subordinate clause starts with the complementizer że /that/, its verb may agree with a deleted subject although the agreement has been blocked in the main clause.

1.3.2 Object, direct

The direct object noun phrase in English follows immediately the verb in a sentence. When an indirect object is present, it can be moved next to the verb so that the direct object is separated from the verb. Like subject, direct object noun phrases can have various semantic functions. In most cases they refer to the animate or inanimate object affected in some way by the action described by the main verb. Several semantic subclasses can be distinguished here. The affected object could be a name of the place where the affecting object is.

They occupied/inhabited the house.

It could refer to a physical object that undergoes internal physical change or is dislocated as a result of the action described by the verb, or with which a physical or cognitive contact is made.

Jim broke the stick.

John removed the fly from the soup.

Jack touched the pencil.

Mary found/noticed the book.

In some cases, it seems proper not to speak about the affected object, but about the result of some action or the source of some state or emotion attributed to the subject noun.

The workers built the house.

Tom wrote a letter.

The boy fears the dog.

Sincerity frightens the boy.

Sometimes, the object noun denotes an object that stands in some relation to the subject referent, but not necessarily being affected by it. The verb in such sentences denotes the position, rank, or some sort of subjugation or dominance of the subject referent in relation to the object noun.

Bill chairs this committee.

leads the race.

has a car.

rules the country.

The list of semantic functions of direct object NPs given above is far from complete. (The cases where the direct object is a clause have, for instance, been disregarded.) It was included here to point out certain semantic distinctions which do not seem to find formal morphosyntactic expression in English /at least with respect to the form of the head noun in direct object NPs in simple active sentences/, but which are relevant for the description of the form of Polish sentences, and consequently play a role in the statement of Polish-English language contrasts.

In Polish, the direct object is typically marked not with a fixed position but with cases: accusative, genitive, instrumental -- depending on the type of transitive verb, i.e., on the semantic function of an NP (see, however, the remark on word order in the preceding section; the neutral position of objects seems to be the one following the verb). There are some cases where a direct object NP in English cannot be rendered as such in a Polish translation; e.g.:

a. The so-called cognate objects which repeat to some extent the meaning and often the form of the complement verb. Only

rarely does English construction find a Polish equivalent with the object noun in the accusative and the verb form similar to it.

write a writ	pisać pismo
dance a dance	tańczyć taniec

Often the accusative noun follows (in Polish translation) a verb which is not similar to it and which cannot stand alone in a sentence when the object is omitted.

live a life	prowadzić życie
ask a question	zadać pytanie
strike blows	zadać cios

The incongruence noted above may lead to interference errors when English students try to translate directly from their native toungue into Polish.

żyć życie	live a life
walczyć walkę	fight a fight
umrzeć śmierć	die a death
pytać pytanie	ask a question

Cognate object constructions for the first three English expressions above do exist in Polish but the noun has to be in the instrumental case, and, as such, it is often classified as manner adverbial: żyć życiem, walczyć walką, umrzeć śmiercią.

b. Objects following verbs like shrug, love, smile, gesture, and those which are nominalized adjectives denoting some emotion of state of mind possessed by the subject referent,

the semantic function of such an object phrase is of a peculiar type and differs from the ones mentioned so far.

she smiled her joy — ona uśmiechała swą radość

she shrugged her displeasure — ona wstrząsnęła swe niezadowolenie

Polish equivalents of such constructions typically possess a semantically neutral verb, e.g., wyrażać "express", and the semantic content of the English verb is coveyed by a nominal complement in the instrumental case, e.g., wyraziła swoją radosc usmiechem.

c. Object following have, where the whole verb phrase denotes a single performance of the action expressed by the noun: have a smoke, have a ride, have a drink, have a swim, etc. The above constructions will be rendered in Polish by perfective verbs: przejechać się, zapalić, wypić, etc.

As with cognate objects, the lack of structurally identical equivalents in Polish may lead to faulty translations and interference errors in the last two cases.

Difficulty in learning may also be caused by the fact /which was mentioned before/ that direct object function is not marked uniformly by a single case. The case of most direct objects is accusative. In the following cases, however, it is genitive:

a. when a noun is used partitively or quasi-partitively, e.g.,

Kup chleba.	Buy some (amount of) bread.
Kup chleb. acc.	Buy a loaf of bread.
	Buy the bread.
Pożycz mi ołówka.	Lend me a pencil. (quasi-partitive)

b. when the main verb is negated, e.g.,

Jacek nie ma zapałek. — Jacek has got no matches.

Wojtek nie widzi napisów. — Wojtek cannot see subtitles.

c. with verbs of negative meaning: przeczyć "deny", zapominać "forget", chybiać "miss", zakazać "forbid", e.g.,

Nauczyciel zakazał uczniom palenia.

The teacher forbade his pupils to smoke.

d. with impersonal verbs such as przybywać "/come to be more..., get more.../", ubywać "/come to be less..., get less.../', wystarczyć "/be enough, suffice/", providing that the genitive nouns are not regarded as subjects /cf. 1.3.1./ e.g.,

Wystarczy mi tych pieniędzy.

This sum of money is enough for me.

e. with verbs denoting emotions, i.e. when the object NP refers to the source of the emotion. The emotion is of some negative type: żałować "be sorry", nienawidzieć "hate", bać się "be afraid", but never: kochać "love", lubić "like", podziwiać "admire", the latter taking objects in the accusative.

Piötr boi się niedzwiedzi.

Peter is afraid of bears.

f. with perfective verbs beginning with prefixes do- and na-: najeść się /eat to be full/, dosypać /fill up/, dobzekać się /to reach something by waiting/, e.g.,

Najadłem się strachu.

g. with verbs denoting need, desire or request: potrzebować /be in need of/, zadać /give/, prosić /ask for/, chcieć /want/ łaknąć /to long for/, szukać /look for/, próbować /to have a try at/ e.g.:

Potrzebuję pomocnika. I need an assistant.

h. with some other verbs including most of those which are semantically related to guard, protect: bronić /defend/, strzec /guard/, pilnować /look after/;

Oni strzegą domu przed złodmiejami.

They are protecting the house against thieves.

With some of the verbs mentioned above the accusative ending is being used alternatively in colloquial speech. When the main verb is negated, however, no such alternative is present.

A direct object NP in Polish may also take an instrumental case ending when the main verb is one of the following: rzadzić /govern/, kierować /direct/, władać /rule/, dowodzić /command/, pogardzać /despise/, pomiatać /take no account of/, lekceważyć /neglect/, opiekować /look after/, machać /wave/, ruszać /move/, trząść /shake/, obracać /turn/, and the like, e.g.,

Chłopiec rusza nogą. The boy is moving his leg.

Rządzę mym królestwem. I rule my kingdom.

Finally, with verbs like przygladać się /stare/, przysłuchiwać się /listen attentively to/, the direct object takes the dative case.

1.3.3 Object, indirect

When two NPs follow transitive verbs in English, the second of them, if it has the preposition to, and can be moved to the position immediately

following the verb while losing the preposition, is the indirect object of the verb phrase. In Polish, the equivalent of the English indirect object is typically the NP with its noun in the dative case. It has the semantic function of addressee, goal, or beneficiary of the action described by the verb.

Bob dał Janowi prezent.	Bob gave John a gift.
Bob zapłacił Janowi dolara.	Bob paid John a dollar.

As mentioned before, the indirect object in dative does not necessarily correspond to the NP having the same function in the English sentence. Following are examples where it does correspond to the English subject and direct object, respectively:

I feel cold.	Jest mi zimno.
I congratulated John on his success.	Pogratulowałem Janowi sukcesu.

The sentence: Posłał ksiażke chłopcu shows that the dative indirect object does not need to precede the direct object. Unless the learner of Polish realizes that the function of the indirect object is determined by the case ending, not position, he may have difficulties in correctly determining which of the two objects is the indirect one /especially in rapid colloquial speech/.

Other examples of indirect objects which do not serve to render similarly functioning English noun phrases appear in the following sentences:

Koledze umarł brat.	My friend's brother died.
Włożyłem ojcu pióro do kieszeni.	I put a pen into my father's pocket.

Nouns in the dative have a possessive semantic function here and are rendered in English only by means of the genitive case or of-PP.

1.3.4 Objective complements

There are some transitive verbs in both languages which are followed by the direct object and another NP. The latter usually refers to some social position or other property which can be stressed by a nominal concept attributed to the object referred to by the direct object NP.

This other NP is referred to as an objective complement. In English it follows direct object NPs. The position of objective complements in Polish is not fixed. Instead, they are marked by an instrumental case ending. The direct object of verbs which take objective complements is either accusative or genitive (with verbs negated). Again, as in the case of other double object constructions, replacement of positional criteria by case inflectional criteria can cause difficulties for the English learner.

Some of the objective complements in both languages are preceded by a preposition. The two languages differ as to the range of verbs that demand their objective complements be prepositional phrases.

We consider him a good actor.

Uważamy go za dobrego aktora dobrym aktorem.

The prepositions used to mark objective complements in Polish are: jako, na, za, w. The nouns which follow assume accusative endings.

Dyrektor mianował Jurka swym zastępcą.
(instrumental)

Dyrektor mianował Jurka na swego zastępcę.
(accusative)

Cenię Janka jako lekarza.
(accusative)

1.3.5 Other objective constructions

Verb phrases of an English sentence can contain a variety of prepositional phrases. Some of them can be properly regarded as functioning in a way similar to direct object constructions in that:

a. there often exist synonymous or nearly synonymous constructions in which the combination Verb+Prep is replaced by a single verb, e.g. live in :: inhabit, approve of :: accept, look for :: seek;

b. passive transformation may change the noun within the PP into the subject.

These PP's are sometimes distinguished from other PPs and called prepositional objects /Scheurweghs, 1961, Zandvoort, 1962/.

In Polish, prepositional phrases within the verb phrase are sometimes classified summarily into the indirect object category so that they are kept apart from direct objects from which they differ by not being able to be shifted by a passive rule.

Learning the proper use of prepositions in Polish may be a difficult task for the English speaker. First of all, he should master the way prepositions govern case assignment to nouns with which they are associated. Secondly, English prepositional phrases do not find regular correspondences in Polish. Often what is a PP in English is rendered as a noun phrase without any preposition in Polish, and also Polish prepositions do not correspond in a one-to-one fashion with English ones. These facts indicate that relatively strong interference from English can be expected to occur in this area of learning.

Some regularities concerning prepositional case assignment are presented in the table below:

Genitive: u - at, by$_{loc.}$ — wśród - among

z - out of$_{loc.}$ — od - from

do - to (direction)

- into /up, down/

- at /aim at, arrive at/

- till

koło - near, by, around — dla - for

aż do - until — oprócz - except for

obok - next to

Accusative: o - for /ask for/, about /argue about/, of /accuse of/

na - on /tell on/, at /angry at/, to /direction/, by /deadline/, for /wait for/,

po - after /go after/, for /send for, what for/,

w - in /believe in/, into, on

za - for /thank for, die for/, behind /movement/,

Dative: przeciw - against

Instrumental: z, ze - with /agree with, with Mary, with the advent of/

pod, pode - under /location/, at /battle at/, near /near Warsaw/

przed, przede - before, in front of /location, time sequence/

za - behind /location/, after /follow somebody's example/,

między - between

Locative: /called prepositional case, taken by nouns in prepositional phrases only/

w - in, at /location/

na - on, upon /location/

o - about, at /at six o'clock/, of

po - after /time sequence/

przy - at /location/, with /with the help/

The above list is by no means complete. What it tries to show is that:

a. prepositions determine cases but they do not do it in a completely predictable way. Often the same preposition can be followed by nouns in different case forms, the choice being determined by the semantic function of the noun phrase. The prepositions przed, za, nad, pod, when they appear with NPs denoting location, take nouns in the instrumental case, and when they denote direction of movement, they take nouns in the accusative case. Similarly, w and na are followed by locative nouns when indicating location and accusatives when indicating direction,

b. there is no one-to-one correspondence between English and Polish prepositions:

English at
- w /at school/
- na /at the university/ be angry at, stare at/
- przy /stand at the wall/
- o /at six o'clock/
- do /smile at/

Polish na
- at /look at/
- on /sit on the chair, tell on/
- for /for sure/ save it for tomorrow/
- onto /put onto the table/
- to /change a name to Smith/
- of /dies of pneumonia/
- by /by the dozen/
- in /in Lithuania/

c. Some Polish prepositional phrases do not have counterparts in English, e.g.:

u + NP_{hum} /u Janka, u mych rodziców, meaning "at the place where NP lives"/

po + NP /idź po piwo, meaning "go and get some beer"/

d. As noted before, the English V+Prep phrase construction may correspond to Polish V+NP structure. This happens when the Polish verb corresponds to the English V+Prep combination in the case of many prepositional object constructions, e.g.:

English		Polish	
boast	of / to	chwalić się	NP+instrumental / NP+dative
correspond to		odpowiadać	NP+dative
trade with		handlować	NP+instrumental
find out		znaleźć	NP+accusative

Many constructions in which an adjective is followed by a prepositional phrase are equivalent to the Polish simple adjective plus NP combination:

be grateful to	być wdzięcznym	NP+dative
certain of	pewnym	NP+genitive
scared of	przestraszonym	NP+instrumental
surprised at	zdziwionym	NP+instrumental

Often, what has been an adjective is rendered by a verb in Polish:

be afraid of	bać się	NP+genitive
ashamed of	wstydzić się	NP+genitive

The case affix fulfills the function of a preposition, signalling the semantic relation of a noun phrase to a verb in some adverbial phrases. The equivalent of an instrumental with-phrase in English is an NP in the instrumental case, e.g.:

Eat with the fork.	jeść widelcem.
Play with a doll.	bawić się lalką.

Prepositional phrases describing manner have their categorical equivalents in Polish:

With care	z uwagą (instrumental)
With great delicacy	z wielką delikatnością (instrumental)

Some English time adverbial PPs have an NP equivalent in Polish:

In the evening	wieczorem
In spring	wiosną (+instrumental)

The reverse situation, where a verb plus NP construction translates into verb plus PP in Polish, also occurs:

Play the piano.	grać na pianinie.
Play cards.	grać w karty.
Enter.	wejść w/do...NP
Go home.	iść do domu.

The correspondence between English prepositions and Polish prepositions and cases is not entirely random, and certain general regularities can be pointed out to the learner to make his task easier. It is important, however, to keep in mind that there are many exceptions which have to be learned separately to avoid incorrect use. Below is an example of the correspondence patterns which can be established.

English Prep./Polish Prep.			Case ending when prep. does not occur	
	Main equivalent	others	Main equivalent	others
to	do belong to correspond to go to/movement/ to some extent etc.	na, ku, dla, /with Adj./	dative indirect object	

English Prep./Polish Prep.			Case ending when prep. does not occur	
	Main equivalent	others	Main equivalent	others
of	o, z, ze accuse of build of, think of, hear of, envious of, proud of, made of, consist of,	od, dla typical of, free of, independent of,	genitive possessive when followed by nouns	instrumental boast of
by	przez, kolo, obok, by mistake, by accident, by+place with objects of passives,	po, za hour by hour sell by pound	instrumental by night	

1.3.6 Nouns as modifiers in derived nominal constructions

In English, a direct object becomes in derived nominal constructions a prepositional phrase with the preposition of. The subject has a possessive form.

John reads the book. = = = = ⇒ John's reading of the book.

In Polish, both subjects and direct objects in accusative may be rendered as noun phrases in genitive, thus closely corresponding to the English counterparts. /The possessive morpheme in English is in fact the genitive case ending, and of-prepositional phrases correspond to the single NP in Polish with its head noun in genitive/.

If in the corresponding full sentence the direct object is in a different case from the accusative, the case ending is not changed in the derived nominal, e.g.:

On rządzi państwem = = = = ⇒ Jego rządy państwem. (instrumental)
(instrumental)

On kiwa palcem = = = = = ⇒ Jego kiwanie palcem. (instrumental)

The indirect object dative noun preserves its case in derived nominal constructions, e.g.:

Dałem Jankowi książkę =====⇒ Danie Jankowi książki.
(dative)

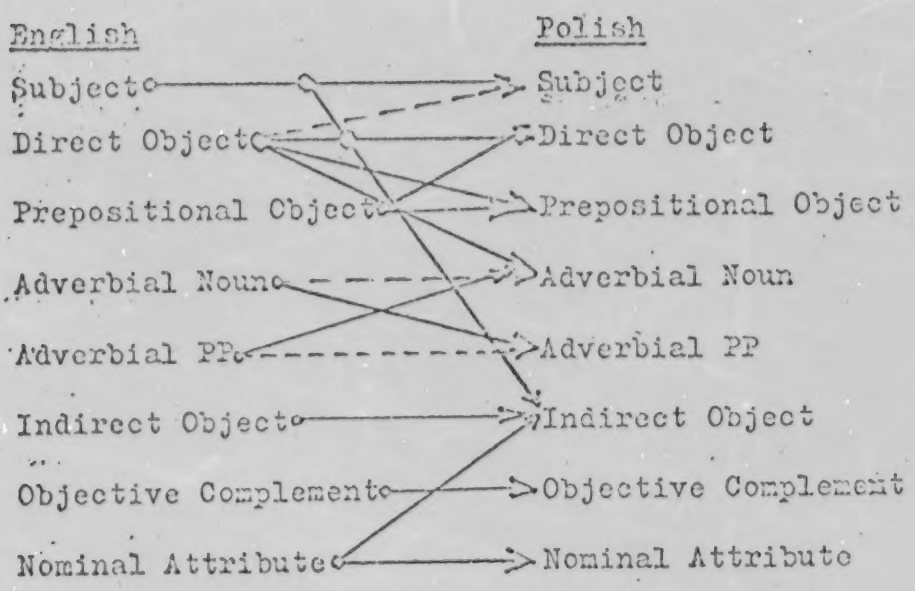
Sprzedałem samochód Marii ====⇒ Sprzedaż samochodu Marii.
(dative)

In some cases, however, sentences with indirect objects do not seem to have their derived nominal counterparts. This is characteristic of sentences which do not have their structural counterparts in English. Cf. Zmarł Jankowi wujek. "Uncle died to John", Smierć wujka Jankowi. In subjectless double object constructions what has been a direct object becomes a PP with a preposition u, e.g.

Brakuje Wojtkowi odwagi. = = = =⇒ Brak odwagi u Wojtka.

1.3.7 Summary of noun functions

As it has been observed, two equivalent noun phrases do not need to have the same syntactic function in the two sentences which are semantically and structurally the closest possible paraphrases of each other. The discrepancies of this sort have been summed up below. Notice that strictly speaking what is being discussed in the summary following are not functions as such, but functions being performed by particular categorical structures.



Subject	::	Indirect Object	I am cold.
Dir Obj	::	Indirect Object	I congratulate him on the success.
	::	Prep Object	She plays cards.
	::	Adverbial Noun	He died a slow death.
	::	Subject /optionally/	I like her. Jack lost the keys.
Adv PP	::	Adv Noun	It will happen in the evening.
Adv Noun	::	Adv PP	We went home.
Prep Obj	::	Direct Object	He boasts of his courage.
Nominal Attribute	::	Indirect Obj. /optionally/	Jack's father died.

1.3.8 Attributive Adjectives

Adjectives in Polish, both attributive and predicative, agree in case with the nouns with which they are associated. Exceptions include adjectives modifying first declension masculine human nouns, which unlike the nouns in question, preserve the general pattern for virile noun inflection having equal genitive and accusative endings.

Attributive adjectives typically precede the nouns they modify. If an adjective refers to some intrinsic or type feature of the object

to which the noun phrase refers, rather than to some accidental temporal or individual specific one, the adjective is placed in the position following the noun, e.g.:

Stary niedźwiedź	-	Old bear
Niedźwiedź brunatny	-	Brown bear /ursus arctos/
Mała kurka	-	Little hen
Kurka wodna	-	Water hen

The N+Adj word order is also characteristic of the so-called transpositional adjectives, the ones that cannot be related to "N is Adj" constructions with predicative adjectives:

Solar energy	-	energia słoneczną
Garden flowers	-	kwiaty ogrodowe
Industrial worker	-	robotnik przemysłowy

The proper word order placement of adjectives in Polish has to be mastered by an English learner since there are cases where the appearance of an adjective in post- or pre-nominal position is connected with the meaning difference, e.g.:

Animal roars	-	- zwierzęce ryki /roars made not necessarily by animals but having animal-like qualities/
		- ryki zwierzęce /roars made by animals/
Human behavior	-	- ludzkie zachowanie się /behavior which is proper for man/
		- zachowanie się ludzkie /man's behavior/

Sometimes adjectives which denote intrinsic type qualities have to precede the noun, as in:

Wild pig	-	dzika świnia
Black panther	-	czarna pantera

Not all English transpositional adjectives have their categorical counterparts. Some have to be rendered as nominal attributes in the genitive case; others have no single word equivalent at all:

Medical student	-	student medycyny
Spinal operation	-	operacja kręgosłupa
Heavy smoker	-	palacz, który dużo pali
Hard-working student	-	student, który wiele studiuje

2. Verb System

2.1 Verb inflection

Verbal inflection in English covers only one function, viz. tense. An English finite verb consists of two constituents: STEM + TENSE AFFIX. In Polish the finite form of a verb is made up of the following elements: STEM + TENSE + ASPECT + PERSON + NUMBER + /GENDER/. These categories may be expressed by various means: affixation, suppletion, mutation, etc. /e.g., in Polish the category of aspect is realized by prefixation/.

POLISH VERB INFLECTION

A. PERSON — NUMBER — /Present tense inflection/

	Singular	Plural
1st	-ę, -m	-my
2nd	-sz	-cie
3rd	-a, -e, --i	-ą

B. PERSON — NUMBER — /Present tense inflections/

	Singular			Plural	
	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	non-masc.
1st	-em	-am	/-om/	-iśmy	-yśmy
2nd	-eś	-aś	/-oś/	-iście	-yście
3rd	-Ø	-a	-o	-i	-y

Although potentially possible, separate forms for neuter gender in the past tense first and second person signular are extremely rare and rather limited to literary style.

In the plural there are two genders only: masculine, taking the -l(~) suffix, and non-masculine, taking the -ł(-) suffix. Thus the inflectional ending of a Polish verb in a past tense expresses one more grammatical category, viz. gender. This, by the way, explains why in

English personal pronouns always precede verbs to show person and number, which does not, however, exclude the ambiguity caused by the fact that the pronoun you serves both for the singular and plural. In Polish it is the verbal form itself which shows all these features. Consider:

E. What do you do after supper? -P. Co zwykle robisz po kolacji?

E. I watch TV. -P. Oglądam telewizję.

The future tense is formed by means of the future tense of the auxiliary być /to be/ and the infinitive or past participle of the lexical verb. In case the aspect is perfective, the verb with a present tense inflection /formally present/ appears as the perfective future tense, e.g. przyjdę "I'll come" from przychodzić.

2.1.1 Consonant and vowel changes in the root

A. Consonantal change

b-b´, p-p´, m-m´, w-w´, f-f´, d-dź, t-ć, s-ś,
ż-ź, n-ń, ł-l, r-rz, g-dz/ź, k-c/cz, ch-sz/ś,
h-ż, g-k/ǵ;

Examples: niosę-niesiesz, /s-ś/, biorę-bierzesz /r-rz/, etc.

B. Vocalic changes-

e-o, e-a, o-ó, ę-ą

Examples: niesiesz-niosę /e-o/, jedziesz-jadę /e-a/,
niosła-niósł /o-ó/, etc.

2.1.2 English verb inflection

The English verb system is somewhat complicated by the fact that the finites have inflected forms which are constructed in part by

stem modification. English regular verbs have their inflected forms which are constructed exclusively by the addition of suffixes to the base form. In the present tense, however, there is no difference as to regular and irregular verbs. The base form is used for all persons and both numbers, except the third person singular, consisting of a stem plus the-s morpheme. The -s morpheme cumulates four functions: person, number, tense, and mood /gender must be marked by a pronoun/.

The past tense is signalled by the -ed suffix, added to the base form of regular verbs and by modification of the stem of the base form in the case of irregular verbs. The modification may be of following types:

a. vowel change only: lead-led, shoot-shot, etc.

b. consonant change only: build-built, make-made, etc.

c. both vowel and consonant change: sell-sold, bring-brought, etc.

On the basis of the above remarks we may draw the following conclusions:

a. the category of aspect, which is essential in Polish, is morphologically not important in English,

b. in English, verb inflection expresses tense only /except, of course, for the -s ending, which also marks person, number and mood/;

c. in Polish, verb inflection expresses several categories simultaneously: tense, person, number and gender /in the past tense/.

2.2 Aspect and tense

Having ignored the progressive tenses /these are a peculiarity

of English which has to be either completely neglected or rendered by other, non-grammatical means in Polish, e.g., by special adverbials corresponding to English just, now, etc.: I was going out - Właśnie wychodziłem/, we arrive at a system of six tenses readily comparable to the Polish system:

Present	Present Perfect
Past	Past Perfect
Future	Future Perfect

Compared with the above six-element system, the Polish system is deficient and incomplete. Apart from the fact that, since aspect is inherent in Polish verbs, an analogous system has to be made up of two corresponding verbal forms /one imperfect, the other perfect/, we arrive at five forms only:

	Imperfect	Perfect
Present	piszę	-
Past	pisałem	napisałem
Future	będę pisać	napiszę

In Polish, the perfective verb has no present form; napisze though formally /inflectionally/ identical with the present tense, has the meaning of future. In the Polish system there is then a gap just in the place filled by the present perfect in English. Thus, the semantic field, which is covered by six tenses in English, has to be covered by only five in Polish. In such circumstances the lacking form of the present perfect is replaced by either the present /imperfect/, e.g., I have lived here for two weeks - Mieszkam tu od dwóch tygodni, or by the past /perfect/, e.g., I have read this book - przeczytałem te książke, depending on whether the time of the aspect is deemed more

important by the speaker at that particular instant.

The relationship between the perfect aspect and the time moment developed in English is the key to the understanding of the difference between the Polish and the English tense systems. In Polish, there is simply a perfect form of a verb, and the reference to it is not made explicit unless by the context. In English there are two perfect forms, e.g. has written and had written, differing as to their time references /present vs. past/. The Polish opposition of aspects /perfect vs. imperfect/ is replaced in English by an opposition of time/reference /preceding vs. simultaneous/, the difference ultimately deriving from the fact that there are five forms in the one system as against six in the other. Where there is in Polish just one past form napisałem corresponding to the perfect infinitive napisać, there are two perfect forms corresponding to the perfect infinitive in English, the perfect aspect being differentiated with regard to time. Perfectivity in English is thus always marked for time, while in Polish it is the verb that is marked for perfectivity and if so marked, it is devoid of a present form.

It is obvious that the three tense forms available in Polish for expressing present and past action /piszę, pisałem, napisałem/ are incapable of rendering in a precise way all the variety of the English system. The form piszę could be used to render both I write, as well as I am writing. Pisałem translates I have written and I had written. The identical rendering of these two English tenses in Polish is due to the aspectival nature of the Polish verb system, which is best seen in the separate infinitives /e.g., pisań vs. napisać/.

2.3 Auxiliary Verbs

2.3.1 English Auxiliaries

English auxiliaries may be divided into two groups: (1) those that have subject agreement in the third person singular and the full past syntax /be and have/; and (2) those which have neither the third person singular nor the full past syntax /shall, can, etc./.

As to verb phrases of which these verbs can be constituents, we may classify them in at least two ways:

a. according to the shape of the main verb, which may appear as: V, Ven, and Ving, i.e., as unmarked infinitive /V/, past participle /Ven/, and present participle /Ving/, respectively. Accordingly, the verb phrases may be divided into V verb phrases /e.g., must go/, Ven verb phrases /e.g., is prepared, might have gone/, and Ving verb phrases /is going/;

b. the second division is based on the distinction between primary and modal auxiliaries which appear in verb phrases. Thus one can distinguish between primary and modal verb phrases, depending on whether primary or modal auxiliary appears in its finite form.

English auxiliary verbs and the main verb may combine into verb sequences according to the following principles:

1. auxiliaries always precede the main verb,
2. BE is always placed nearest the main verb,
3. BE always precedes either Being or the main verb in its Ven or Ving forms,

4. HAVE precedes either Being or the main verb in its Ven form,
5. the first auxiliary in the verb phrase is always inflected for tense, and if the present tense is used, for person /this rule does not apply in the case of the modals/,
6. modal auxiliaries always precede all the other verbs in the verb phrase including the primary auxiliaries,
7. in one verb phrase there can be only one modal.

2.3.2 Polish auxiliaries

Like English, the Polish verb phrase may consist of a single finite verb or a group of verbs, one of which appears in the finite form. In Polish we find at least three groups of verbs that can be followed by other verbs to constitute verb sequences:

1. verbs that can be followed by other verbs in their non-finite forms /the only verbs in this group are BYĆ, BYWAĆ, and ZOSTAĆ/,
2. verbs that can only be followed by infinitives /e.g., musieć, mieć, etc./,
3. verbs that can be followed by infinitives or by nominal phrases functioning as their objects /e.g., umieć, zaczynać, etc./.

2.3.2.1 Polish primary auxiliaries

The group of verbs that can be followed by non-finite forms of verbs contains the items: BYĆ, BYWAĆ, and ZOSTAĆ. These are labeled here as primary auxiliaries. The primary auxiliaries may be followed

by the following non-finite forms: infinitive /V/, passive past participle /Ven/, and active past participle.

There are sufficient reasons for making a distinction between BYĆ, in: Bedzie mógł odejść "He will be allowed to leave" and BYĆ in: On musi być ukarany "He must be punished." For the sake of future reference the former BYĆ is symbolized here as $BYĆ_1$ and the latter as $BYĆ_2$. $BYĆ_2$ is the passive voice auxiliary. In contrast to $BYĆ_1$ /the future tense auxiliary/, which has no present as past tense forms, $BYĆ_2$ has all finite forms in all the three tenses distinguished for Polish /i.e. present, past and future/.

Functionally, BYWAĆ and ZOSTAĆ are aspectual variants of the passive auxiliary $BYĆ_2$. BYWAĆ and ZOSTAĆ are always followed by Ven. BYWAĆ is inflected for present and past tense only, e.g. Bywa często odwiedzane przez turystów /present tense/ - "It /place/ is often visited by tourists", and Bywało często odwiedzane przez turystów./past tense/.

BYWAĆ does not catenate with the other primary auxiliaries, hence the doubtful example: ?Bedzie bywał często zapraszany na kolacje - "He will often be invited to supper".

ZOSTAĆ combines with Ven of a perfective verb to denote a completed action. Like $BYĆ_2$, it possesses all three tenses: zostaje /present tense/, został /past tense/, and zostanie /future tense/; e.g., Zostaje zaproszony na kolacje. - "He is invited to supper," Został zaproszony na kolację - "He was invited to supper," etc.

The following formulas account for the forms of the main verb required by the particular primary auxiliary:

$BYĆ_1$ - /future auxiliary/ + V or V_x /active past participle,

e.g., Bedzie pisać/ pisał,

$BYĆ_2$ - ZOSTAĆ, BYWAĆ + Ven, e.g., Będzie zrobiony, zostanie napisany, bywa oglądany.

2.3.2.2 Polish modal auxiliaries

The primary difference between the primary auxiliaries and the modal auxiliaries is that the former can be followed by active and passive participles while the latter must be followed by the infinitive. Modal auxiliaries display the following features:

1. they must be followed by the infinitive,
2. they may occur non-initially /except for $BYĆ_1$/,
3. they lack the category of imperative,
4. they cannot combine with one another.

The Polish modal category includes the following items: musieć, mieć, móc, and powinno się. Unlike the English modals the Polish modals possess non-finite forms, although some of them lack certain categories. Consider the diagram:

Infinitive	móc	musieć	mieć	-
Pres. Part.	mogący	-	mając	-
Active Past Part.	mógł	musiał	miał	-
Perfect Part.	mógłszy	-	-	-
Present T. Indic.	mogę	muszę	mam	powinienem
Past T. Indic.	mogłem	musiałem	miałem	-

The possible arrangements of the modal and primary auxiliaries will be as follows:

1. $BYĆ_1$ + M /in its V_x form/, Będzie mógł,
2. M + $BYĆ_2$, musi być wykonany,
3. M + ZOSTAC , Ma zostać pomalowane,
4. $BYĆ_1$ + M + $BYĆ_2$, Będzie mógł byc napisany.

Notice that the absence of the category of active past participle in modal auxiliaries can only be demonstrated on the level of verb phrases, since morphologically it is indistinguishable from past tense indicative forms of the third person singular, which do exist in those verbs, e.g., będzie mógł - "he'll be able to," and on mógł - "he could."

The English and Polish modal auxiliaries appear to be similar only with respect to the following features:

a. they are followed by the infinitive,

b. they can be directly negated by not /this however is not a distinguishing feature of the Polish modal auxiliaries, since it also applies to all Polish true verbs, e.g., powiedział, że nie przyjdzie. Also in Polish the negative particle always precedes the modal/,

c. they do not combine with one another.

But in contrast to English modals, the Polish modals:

a. are inflected for person, tense and number,

b. possess non-finite forms /except for powinien/,

c. in questions they need not invert with the subject noun phrase /in Polish the subject NP does not normally appear in the suface structure of questions, e.g., Czy musisz iść? - "Must you go?" In cases when the subject NP does appear, this usually has only stylistic consequences/,

Another structural difference between Polish and English concerns the location of tense markers in verb phrases containing a modal auxiliary. In Polish, unlike English, the tense marker must always be located in the modal auxiliary /irrespective of its meaning, cf. musi pojechać - he must go , musiał pojechać - he must have gone/. Past time is

signalled here by the auxiliary have /

As can be seen, the list of English modals is far richer than that of Polish. Therefore to translate certain of the English modals, one has to resort in Polish to the use of a different sort of construction. To take an example, the English learner of Polish would in vain look for a modal auxiliary equivalent of the English shall as it is used in: 1. you shall be sorry, or 2. you shall have the money tomorrow. In these, shall makes it explicit that the initiation of the action expressed by the lexical verb is external to the subject of the sentences. The Polish translation equivalents of (1) and (2) will be respectively: Pożałujesz!, and Dostaniesz ta pieniądze jutro. Note that the Polish sentences contain no special word with which to render the meaning conveyed by shall. In both Polish sentences the main verb appears in its perfective future tense form. The Polish examples also seem to involve a special kind of intonation.

2.4 Negation

Exponent of negation in English:

1. Negative words:
   a. simple: no, not
   b. compound: none, nobody, nothing, nowhere, never, neither;
2. The negative particle -n't /or -not, as in cannot/ always joined to a special finite;
3. Negative affixes:
   a. prefixes: un-, dis-, in-, a-, non-;
   b. suffix: -less;

Some of these exponents /e.g., no, not, etc./ may be ambiguous if taken

at their face value, and it is only at other levels that one can distinguish between various kinds of no, not, etc. Thus at the phonological level some not's have a strong stress, and some a weak one. The any accompanying a negative word is always unemphatic and weakly stressed; but there is also a strongly stressed any which is not negative, cf., I won't go to ăny café - Nie pojdę do żadnej kawiarni vs. I won't go to ány café - Nie pójdę do bylejakiej kawiarni.

Exponents of negation in Polish:

1. nie, often spelled together with the word negated;
2. ni-, found only in compounds, e.g., nikt, nic /both in their various case forms/; nigdzie, nigdy, ani;
3. żaden /various case forms of its three genders/.

The list can be completed by prefixes as bez- and the preposition bez.

At the phonological level one may contrast nie having its own stress with nie depending for its stress on the immediately following word it qualifies. This latter nie appears now as stressed, now as unstressed. Stress in Polish regularly falls on the penultimate syllable of a word, or rather stress-group, so if the word qualified by nie happens to be a monosyllable, the stress will of necessity have to be a automatically transferred to nie, cf., nie było, vs. nie ma with stresses mechanically super-imposed on the penultimate syllable in each group. This system in Polish helps to explain why there is a possibility of the negative particle being linked with the following word in spelling: a proclitic word within a stress group has the same status as a syllable has within a word.

The stress-system differences tie up with grammatical distinctions, the absolute negation nie always being stressed, while the sentence negation nie is proclitic. At the syntactic level a ni- word appearing

in a sentence is always accompanied by nie /verbal negator/.

Objects of negative sentences appear in the genitive case /instead of the normal accusative/.

There is no 1:1 correspondence between the exponents of negation in the two languages, the Polish exponents being fewer than the English ones /in form/. Consider:

Function /type of negation/	English	Polish
Absolute negation /no constitutes the whole of a response utterance/	nó	nié
Sentence negation	nŏt /-n't/	nie
Quantitative negation /includes Palmer's "words of negative totality"/	no	żaden
	none	żaden
	no one	nikt
	nobody	nikt
	nothing	nic
	nowhere	nigdzie
	never	nigdy
	neither	ani
	nor	ani
Special /lexical/ negation	nóf	nie
	un-	nie-
	in-	nie-
	-less	bez (-)
	without	bez

Thus,

no and none are rendered by żaden

nobody and none are rendered by nikt

neither and nor are rendered by ani

un- and in- are rendered by nie-

2.4.1 · Absolute negation

The absolute negation in English is no /as contrasted with yes/. No sometimes constitutes the whole of a response utterance, but mostly

only introduces a response utterance. The standard Polish equivalent is nie, e.g., He had been saying "yes" and "no" in turn - Mówił tylko "tak" i "nie".

A typical negative answer in English, however, consists of the absolute negative no followed by a negative auxiliary verb with its pronoun subject. There being no auxiliaries of this kind in Polish, except for the auxiliary of the imperfective future tense będę, etc., the full negatived verb has to be used here, cf., Do you know what A means, little Piglet? No, Eeyore, I don't. P. Nie, Kłapouszku, nie wiem.

In some cases the absolute negative no must be rendered in Polish by an affirmative, as in:

"That's no good." "No," said Pooh, "I thought it wasn't." - To niedobrze. Tak - zgodził się Puchatek - i ja tak myślę.

This results from different systems operating in the two languages. In English the comment or answer addresses itself to the fact, irrespective of the form of the preceding statement or question; in Polish it depends on the form as well, or rather on the relationship between that form and the actual situation. The two systems can be presented as follows:

Form of question or statement	Situation	Answer or Comment	
		English	Polish
positive	positive	yes	tak
positive	negative	no	nie
negative	positive	yes	nie
negative	negative	no	tak

2.4.2 Sentence negation

Four types of sentences should be distinguished:

1. affirmative positive
2. interrogative positive
3. affirmative negative
4. interrogative negative

The marker of the negative sentences is not placed after one of the 24 auxiliaries /primary and modal/, or -n't written jointly with them.

From the point of view of their Polish equivalents it is convenient to divide the negative auxiliaries into two groups:

Group 1 would include items that have only grammatical meaning: do - perfect auxiliary, and shall/will - when marking pure futurity and in Conditional, be - continuous and passive auxiliary - have - perfective auxiliary. To this group should also be added can when used with verbs of perception/ cf., I can't see being equivalent to I don't see/.

Group 2 would include auxiliaries /special features/ used as verbs with meanings of their own, thus be denoting existence or used as copula, have denoting possession, and also the modal verbs retaining their modal meanings /can, must, etc./.

The negative special finites of Group 1 are rendered in Polish by nie only /immediately followed by a finite form of the full verb to be negatived/. The negative special finites of Group 2 are rendered by nie plus an equivalent of the special finite.

Examples of Group 1:

They don't like honey - nie lubią

I'm not throwing it - nie rzucam

Examples of Group 2:

I haven't another balloon - nie mam

One mustn't complain - nie mogę barzekać

With the verb to be, the Polish equivalents are:

a. nie jestem, etc. /Present/, nie byłem, etc. /Past/

b. nie alone, in case of omission of the copula in Polish /Present only; the Past tense form is regularly nie byłem, etc./

c. there isn't and there aren't are rendered by nie ma /Present only; the Past is regularly nie było /. The subject of the sentence is in the genitive case here. Examples:

it isn't a sponge - to nie jest gąbka

(but spelling) isn't everything - nie wszystko

Pooh isn't there - nie ma Puchatka

One of the peculiarities of the special finites is that they can function as 'propredicates' /Joos 1964-65/. There being no device of that kind in Polish, there are two kinds of possible equivalents with negatives: (a) the full verb form is repeated with nie preceding it, or (b) the negative nie alone is used, the full verb being 'understood', e.g.:

> I think, began Piglet nervously. Don't, said Eeyore.- nie myśl (a)
>
> Sometimes the place was Pooh's nose and sometimes it wasn't - a czasem nie (b)

Another important peculiarity of the English special finites is their use in tag questions. The tags are either negative or positive, depending on whether they are attached to a positive or a negative sentence respectively. In Polish the difference is lost entirely. There are formally two equivalents: 1. the seemingly negative nieprawda and 2. the positive prawda, which are used freely in translation, irrespective of the English tag form.

Sometimes English verbal negation is not rendered in Polish by negativing the verb. Instead of a negative sentence /negative verb/, we have the negative element placed next to some other part of the sentence, the result being a positive sentence with only part of it negatived /e.g., You don't often get seven verses in a Hum - nie często/ not often /bywa siedem zwrotek w mruczance//.

2.4.3 Quantitative negation

Although sentences with quantitative negation may be equivalent in meaning to sentences with verbal negation, they are not formally negative.

Polish equivalents of the English quantitative negatives are:

NO - 1. the regular Polish equivalent of the determinative no is żaden /e.g., there was no need - żadnego powodu/

2. in most cases, however, żaden is omitted altogether, since it would often sound emphatic or superfluous, or else reminiscent of a calque from the German keih. Thus most English sentences with no /det./ are rendered in Polish as simple negative sentences with the verb only negatived /there was no wind - nie było wiatru/.

NOBODY - its standard Polish equivalent is nikt and its case forms nikogo /gen.-acc./, nikomu /dat./, nikim /instr.-loc./; "so there is really nobody but me" - "nie ma nikogo oprócz mnie."

All the Polish quantitative negatives /except żaden/ contain the negative particle ni- prefixed to the word. The particle is felt

to be more emphatic than the verbal negator nie, and is often put earlier in the sentence before the verbal negation.

2.4.4 Special negation

In English this type of negation is formally expressed in two ways:

a. by prefixing not to the word;

b. by changing the word into its complementary negative word /this is done with the help of negative prefixes and suffixes/.

Not is regularly rendered in Polish by nie. Nie preceding the negatived word is so universal here that even a change in construction of the sentence in translation makes no difference as far as negation is concerned. The sentences are formally positive, the finite verb not being negatived.

The different negative prefixes /un, in-, etc./ equivalent to the Polish nie- have to be learned rather as lexical items.

3. An Outline of English and Polish Contrastive Syntactic Problems

3.1 Basic Sentence Patterns in English and Polish

A basic sentence pattern is a linear representation of surface structure syntactic functions such that:

a. the syntactic function of the subject is never repeated twice in the same pattern;

b. lexical realizations of syntactic functions occurring within a basic sentence pattern are all obligatorily connotated by the lexical realization of the verb constituent

or predicative following the verb to be /A verb obligatorily connotates a certain syntactic element X if the presence of the lexical realization of X is essential for the structure to be a sentence of a given language/.

3.1.2 Presentation

An English sentence pattern will be presented first and then, corresponding to it, a Polish sentence pattern. This correspondence is established on the basis of the type of predicator /noun, adjective or verb/ occurring in a given sentence. Two verbs, for instance, are said to belong to the same type if they both connotate the same syntactic functions. Meaning correspondence does not play any role in establishing structural patterns in the language, such as sentence patterns.

3.1.3 Terminology

Most terms denoting syntactic functions are used in traditional ways, e.g., subject, object, indirect object, etc. To avoid discussion of terminology in dubious cases, the syntactic functions are distinguished one from another on the basis of what part of speech functions as the filler. For instance:

4 types of predicative:

Predicative 1 - if the filler is a noun
Predicative 2 - if the filler is an adjective
Predicative 3 - if the filler is a prepositional phrase
Predicative 4 - if the filler is an adverb

2 types of objects:

object - if this syntactic function is realized by means of case ending or position in the sentence;

prepositional object - if this syntactic function is realized by means of a prepostion preceding the noun and functioning as object.

Subject is always distinguished from other syntactic elements on the basis of the criterion of concord /agreement with the verb in such categories as: person, number and in Polish, gender/.

Pro-Subject and Quasi-Subject have only some features of the regular subject:

Pro-Subject - /It/ occupies the subject position and is in agreement as to person with the verb;

Quasi-Subject - /There/ occupies the position of the subject, yet the agreement as to person holds between the verb and the noun following the verb, hence this noun is called subject.

1. ENGLISH: PRO-SUBJECT + Verb + PREDICATIVE$_1$
/Copula/

It + be + NP

e.g., It was night. It is five o'clock. It is noon.

POLISH: Verb + Subject
/Copula/

Być + NP

e.g., Była noc. Jest piąta godzina. Jest południe.

2. ENGLISH: PRO-SUBJECT + Verb + PREDICATIVE$_2$
/Copula/

It + BE + ADJECTIVE

e.g., It is late. It is early. It is chilly.

POLISH: Verb + PREDICATIVE$_4$
/Copula/

Być + ADVERB

e.g., Jest późno. Jest wcześnie. Jest chłodno.

3. ENGLISH: QUASI-SUBJECT + Verb + SUBJECT
/Copula/

There + BE + NP

e.g., There was no wind. There won't be enough time.

POLISH: Verb + SUBJECT
/Copula/

Być + NP

e.g., Nie było wiątru. Nie będzie dosyć czaɜu.

4. ENGLISH: PRO-SUBJECT + Verb

It + Verb

e.g., It rains. It snows. It thunders.

POLISH: Verb

Verb

e.g., Pada. Grzmi.

5. ENGLISH
POLISH Subject + Verb + $Predicative_1$
/Copula/

NP + BE + NP
Być

e.g., John is a teacher. He is my father.
Janek jest nauczycielem. On jest moim ojcem.

6. ENGLISH
POLISH SUBJECT + Verb + $Predicative_2$
/Copula/

NP + BE + Adjective
Być

e.g., That dress was black. John was hungry.
Ta sukienka była czarna. Janek był głodny.

7. ENGLISH
POLISH

SUBJECT + Verb /Copula/ + $PREDICATIVE_3$

NP + BE / Być + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

e.g., That meeting was at five o'clock. The bird is on the tree.
To zebranie było o piątej godzinie. Ptak jest na drzewie.

8. ENGLISH: Quasi-Subject + Verb /Copula/ + Subject + $Predicative_3$

THERE + BE + NP + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

e.g., There is a book on the table. There is still some room in this house.

POLISH: $PREDICATIVE_3$ + Verb /Copula/ + SUBJECT

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e.g., Na stole jest książka. Jest jeszcze trochę miejsca w tym domu.

9. ENGLISH
POLISH

SUBJECT + VERB

NP + Verb

e.g., Everybody was reading. The boy smiled.
Każdy czytał. Chłopiec uśmiechnął się.

10. ENGLISH
POLISH

SUBJECT + VERB /Copula/ + $Predicative_2$ + Object

NP + BE / Być + Adjective + NP

e.g., You are not worthy of your wife. John is like his father.
Ty nie jesteś wart swojej żony. On nie jest godny tego zaszczytu.

11. ENGLISH
POLISH

Subject + Verb /Copula/ + $Predicative_2$ + Prepositional Object

---

NP + BE / Być + Adjective + Preposition + NP

e.g., You are responsible for everything. John is similar to Mary.
Ty jesteś odpowiedzialny za wszystko. Janek jes podobny do Marysi.

12. ENGLISH
POLISH

Subject + Verb + Object

NP + Verb + NP

e.g., Mothers love their children. I ate that cake.
Matki kochają swoje dzieci. Ja zjadłem to ciastko.

13. ENGLISH
POLISH

Subject + Verb + Prepositional Object

NP + Verb + Preposition + NP

e.g., Mary relied on John. Our dreams depend on our personal experiences.
Marysia polegała na Janku. Nasze sny zależą od naszych przeżyć osobistych.

14. ENGLISH: SUBJECT + Verb + Object

NP + Verb + NP + Particle

e.g., He turned the light on. They found it out. Take the coat off.

POLISH: SUBJECT + Verb + Object

NP + Verb + NP

e.g., On włączył światło. Oni wykryli to. Rozbierz płaszcz.

15. ENGLISH
POLISH

Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Object

NP + Verb + NP + NP

e.g., The boy gave me a book. Mary told John a nice story.
Chłopiec dał mi książkę. Marysia opowiedziała Jankowi ładną historyjkę.

16. ENGLISH: Subject + Verb + Object + Prepositional Indirect Object

NP + Verb + NP + Preposition "to" + NP

e.g., I will show it to you. The teacher handed the book to his student.

POLISH: SUBJECT + Verb + Object + Indirect Object

NP + Verb + NP + NP

e.g., Ja pokażę to tobie. Nauczyciel wręczył książkę studentowi.

17. ENGLISH: Subject + Verb + Predicative$_2$ + Verbal Complement +...
/Copula/

NP + BE + Adjective + Complementizer "to" + Verb

e.g., John was anxious to leave. I will be pleased to see you.

POLISH: SUBJECT + Verb + Predicative$_2$ + Verbal Complement + ...
/Copula/

NP + Być + Adjective + Verb + Complementizer "ć"

e.g., Basia była skłonna uwierzyć mi. Janek jest zobowiązany złożyć ciotce wizytę.

18. ENGLISH: Subject + Verb + Verbal Complement + ...

NP + Verb + Comp. "to" + Verb
Verb + Comp. "ing"

e.g., The girls wanted to dance. Mary decided to write a book. My mother avoids eating sweets.

POLISH: Subject + Verb + Verbal Complement + ...

NP + Verb + Verb + Complementizer "ć"

e.g., Dziewczęta chciały tańczyć. Marysia postanowiła napisać książkę.

19. ENGLISH: Subject + Verb + Object + Verbal Complement + ...

NP + Verb + NP + Comp. "to" + Verb
Comp. Ø + Verb
Verb + Comp. "ing"

e.g., I want him to clean the kitchen. They saw John crossing the street. They saw John cross the street.

POLISH: (no Basic Sentence Pattern)-
Subject + Verb + SUBORDINATE CLAUSE
/subord. conjunction + Subject + Verb + .../

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e.g., Ja chcę, żeby on wyczyścił kuchnię. Oni widzieli jak Janek przechodził przez ulicę.

20. ENGLISH: SUBJECT + Verb + $Predicative_2$

NP + Verb + Adjective

e.g., John looked pale. The soup tasted salty. My brother grew tall. She married young.

POLISH: Subject + Verb + $Predicative_2$

NP + Verb + Adjective

OR:

Subject + Verb + $Predicative_4$

NP + Verb + Adverb

e.g., Zosia zrobiła sie czerwona. Generał stał się złośliwy. Janka wygladała ślicznie. Zupa smakowała słono.

21. ENGLISH
POLISH Subject + Verb + Object-Adjunct

NP + Verb + NP + NP
NP/instrumental case/

e.g., The nation elected him president. They made Newton President of the Royal Society.
Naród wybrał go prezydentem. Minister mianował Malinowskiego swoim zastępcą.

3.1 English Counterparts of the Polish Subjectless Sentences

1. ENGLISH: A Sentence in Passive without the by- phrase:

e.g., Many houses were built there. We were allowed to smoke in the classroom. He was killed.

POLISH: Verb + Object
Indirect Object + ...
.
.
.

Verb + { -no / -to } ending + NP + ...

e.g., Zbudowano tam wiele domów. Pozwolono nam palić w klasie. Ząbito go.

2. ENGLISH: A Sentence in Active:

SUBJECT + VERB + Object + ...

Or: SUBJECT + Copula + $Predicative_2$

e.g., I have a stomach ache. I'm sick.

POLISH: VERB + OBJECT + ...

Verb /3rd person singular/ + NP + ...

e.g., Boli mnie w brzuchu. Dusi mnie w piersiach. Mdli mnie.

3. ENGLISH: A Sentence in Passive with a by- or with- phrase:

e.g., The roads were covered { by / with } snow.

POLISH: VERB + OBJECT + "Ergative" Object

Verb + -ło + NP + NP
/pst. ending/

e.g., Skuło rzeki lodem. Zasypało drogi śniegiem.

4. ENGLISH: Pro-SUBJECT + VERB + PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT + ...

It + Verb + Prep. "of" + NP

e.g., It smelled of cigars in that room.

POLISH: VERB + "Ergative" Object

Verb/3rd person singular/ + NP

e.g., Cuchnie tu papierosami. Pachniało czeremchą.

3.2 Differences Between English and Polish Sentence Patterns

3.2.1 Patterns that occur only in one language

A. Sentence patterns that occur only in English:

1. Sentence Patterns with Pro-Subject "it":

e.g., It is cold

It was night.

It smelled of cigars in the room.

2. Sentence Patterns with Quasi-Subject:

e.g., There was no wind.

There is a book on the table.

3. Pattern: Subject + Verb + Object + Verbal Complement:

e.g., I want him to sing now.

He made her sing.

B. Sentence patterns that occur only in Polish:

1. All patterns without Subject:

e.g., Jest późno. Pada. Budowano domy. Pachnie czeremchą, etc.

2. Patterns with Predicative 4:

e.g., Jest chłodno.

Janka wygląda młodo.

3.2.2 English sentence patterns which do not have identical counterparts in Polish

ENGLISH	POLISH
P. 1. Pro-Subject + Verb /copula/+ + Predicative$_1$	Verb /copula/ + Subject
P. 2. Pro-Subject + Verb /copula/ + Predicative$_2$	Verb /copula/ + Predicative$_4$
P. 3. Quasi-Subject + Verb /copula/ + Subject	Verb /copula/ + Subject
P. 4. Pro-Subject + Verb	Verb
P. 8. Quasi-Subject + Verb /copula/ + Subject + Predicative$_3$	Predicative$_3$ + Verb /copula/ + Subject OR: Verb + Subject + Predicative$_3$
P. 16. Subject + Verb + Object + + Prepositional Ind. Object	Subject + Verb + Object + + Indirect Object
P. 19. Subject + Verb + Object + + Verbal Complement	Subject + Verb + Subordinate Clause
P. 20. Subject + Verb + Predicative$_2$	Subject + Verb + Predicative$_2$ OR: Subject + Verb + Predicative$_4$

3.3 English and Polish sentences containing result clauses, purpose clauses and causal clauses

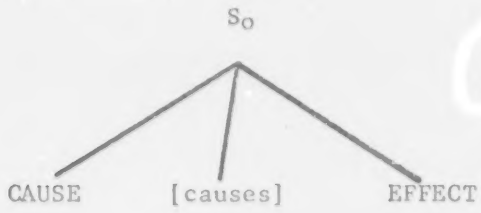
3.3.0 Abstract

It has been assumed that these sentences possess an underlying tri-partite deep semantic structure:

S_1/cause/, S_2/effect/, and the CAUSE-EFFECT relation which can be represented by means of the abstract verb /causes/.

The relation /causes/ combines CAUSE /S_1/ and EFFECT /S_2/ into one unit /S_o/: a sentence containing a result clause or a purpose clause /and it has its concrete counterparts in the surface structure/ conjoining indicators such as so that, therefore, in order to, and, Ø, etc./.

The general scheme of the derivation of sentences containing result clauses /SsCR/, purpose clauses /SsCP/, and causal clauses /SsCC/ is as follows:



All the above sentences can be derived from this general abstract phrase marker. SsCR and SsCP can be differentiated according to the semantic type of EFFECT.

The classificatory feature /± completion/ superimposed on EFFECT solves this problem. The feature /± completion/ means roughly that the EFFECT is already accomplished in a given sentence. The EFFECT with the feature /± completion/ may be called RESULT, and it exists in SsCR. The feature /± completion/ roughly means that the EFFECT is not accomplished in a given sentence. This phenomenon is characteristic for SsCP. The criterion and tests establishing whether a given EFFECT is /± completion/ are very complex and are beyond the scope of this short report.

SsCC are derived transformationally from SsCR and SsCP by means of a formalization transformation. The transformation topicalizes the EFFECT /CAUSE becomes a comment/ and changes the relation /causes/ into /caused by/.

1a. I have bought myself a radio set so that /causes/
CAUSE

I can listen to Radio Luxembourg ⇒ ⇒ ⇒ ⇒
RESULT

I can listen to Radio Luxembourg because /caused by/
RESULT

I have bought myself a radio set.
CAUSE

1b. Kupiłem sobie radioodbiornik, tak że /causes/
CAUSE

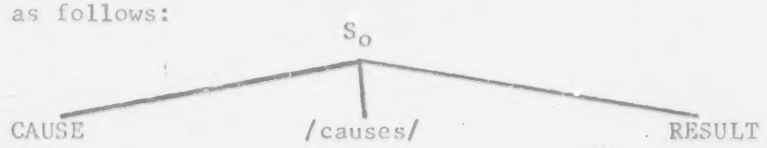
Mogę słuchać Luxemburga, ⇒ ⇒ ⇒ ⇒
RESULT

Mogę słuchać Luxemburga, ponieważ /caused by/
RESULT

Kupiłem sobie radioodbiornik
CAUSE

3.3.1 Sentences containing clauses of result in English and Polish

The general scheme for the derivation of SsCR in English and Polish is as follows:



SO THAT
TAK ŻE
THEREFORE
SKUTKIEM CZEGO
MAKE IT
SPOWODOWAC
etc.

The weather was nice	so that	we were able to go to the beach
pogoda była piękna	tak że	
The nice weather /-made it	therefore	mogliśmy pójść na plażę
Piękna pogoda /-spowodować	skutkiem czego	
	made it	possible for us to go /-make it-/
	spowodowała	

The surface structure formal signals of the "traditional" SsCR in English and Polish are:

ENGLISH		POLISH
So/.../{that / ∅}	corresponding to	/tak//.../{że /aż/ / iż}
such /.../{that / ∅}	corresponding to	/taki//.../{że /aż/ / iż}
		/na/tyle/.../{że /aż/ / iż}

The number of types of SsCR is the same in English and Polish. The deep structure of SsCR /as understood here/ is in all cases except one common both for English and Polish.

The deep semantic difference between some Polish and English SsCR is that the English language lacks a formal semantic signal which would express the EXTRAORDINARY FORCE OF RESULT. The signal in Polish is 'aż' together with że /że, aż/:

Roman gra tak pięknie na gitarze, że•aż serce rośnie.

Roman plays the guitar so beautifully that even the heart grows fonder.

That even is not the exact equivalent of że aż. Polish że aż expresses more clearly the EXTRA STRONG FORCE OF RESULT. The Polish exact equivalent of even is nawet.

The surface structure differences between English and Polish SsCR are the following:

1. The distribution of English so and such in SsCR is slightly different from the distribution of Polish tak and taki. Such is correlated exclusively with adjectives which modify nouns in the object NP /exceptionally with adjectives modifying the subject NP/. Polish taki does not show this restriction:

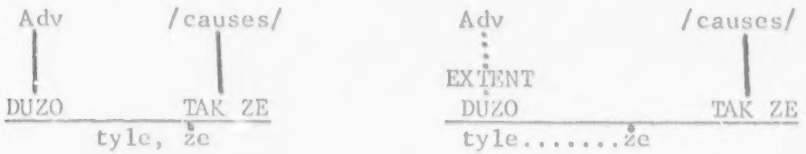
Janek był tak głodny, że nie mógł oglądać filmu

John was so hungry that he could not watch the film.

Janek był taki głodny, że nie mógł oglądać filmu.

John's hunger was such that he could not watch the film.

2. The meaning of the English SO MUCH and SO MANY in the SsCR /Polish TAK DUŻO/ can be optionally compressed in Polish into one unit:



Once I had so much money that I bought myself a house with a garden and a car.

Miałem kiedyś tyle pieniędzy, że kupiłem sobie dom z ogródkiem i samochód.

When so much corresponds to the Polish TAK BARDZO, it cannot be translated into tyle.

3. The equivalent of that in Polish is not only że /aż/ but also iż:

It seemed to her that she would have enough strength to be able to sit in a chair.

Wydawało się jej, że ma w sobie tyle siły, iż będzie w stanie siedzieć na krześle.

The word iż is generally a more formal and journalese variant of że.

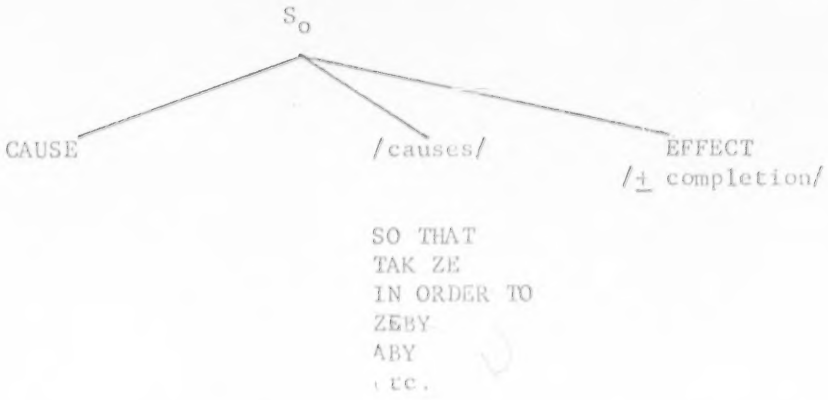
The occurrence of że or iż is also dependent on the occurrence of both in a larger unit than a sentence. When że has already been used in a comparatively small fragment of text, iż is preferably used and vice versa.

4. The English that can be omitted in the surface structure of SsCR. Polish że or iż cannot be omitted in the surface structure of Polish SsCR.

5. After 'sprawił, że , spowodował, że, powoduje, że , RESULT has the form of a surface structure sentence, while the English equivalents are followed either by a nominalization or an infinitival construction.

3.3.2 Sentences containing clauses of purpose in English and Polish

The general scheme for the derivation of SsCP is as follows:



He set up the screen. { so that /tak/żeby/ } it could be watched by all the patients.

Rozciągnął ekran Mogli go oglądać wszyscy pacjenci

The conjoining indicators of SsCP in English and Polish are as

follows:

ENGLISH	POLISH
/so/ that	tak, że
in order to	/tak/ /.../żeby
in order that	ażeby
lest	/tak//.../by
for the purpose of	w celu
for fear that	

For the purpose of, "w celu" is followed by a nominalization construction in the surface structure; in order to is followed by an infinitical construction; all the remaining conjoining indicators in English and Polish are follwed by S.

Some English SsCP do not possess a conjoining indicator in their surface structure /if we consider that to has only an infinitive introducing function/. The situation is impossible in Polish unless we are dealing with two separate surface structure sentences:

He bundled up Alice's clothes and personal possessions to give to Lucille.

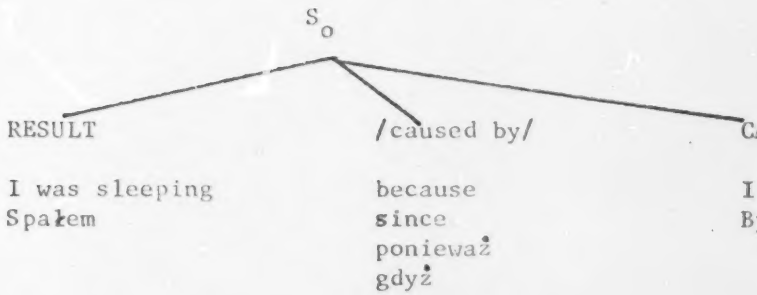
Zagarnął suknie i rzeczy osobiste Alice żeby je dać Lucille.

3.3.3. Causal clauses in English and Polish

Sentences containing causal clauses SsCC are transformationally derived from SsCR and SsCP /see 3.3.0/.

The causal conjoining indicators in English and Polish are the following:

ENGLISH	POLISH
because	ponieważ
since	gdyż
as	na skutek
inasmuch as	z powodu /że/
for the reason that	bo
due to the fact that	dlatego, że
on account of	
for	



On account of and na skutek are followed by a nominalization in the surface structure. After the majority of conjoining indicators CAUSE has the shape of the surface structure sentence, for the reason that, due to the fact that, on account of, and Polish na skutek are used in more formal speech than others.

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